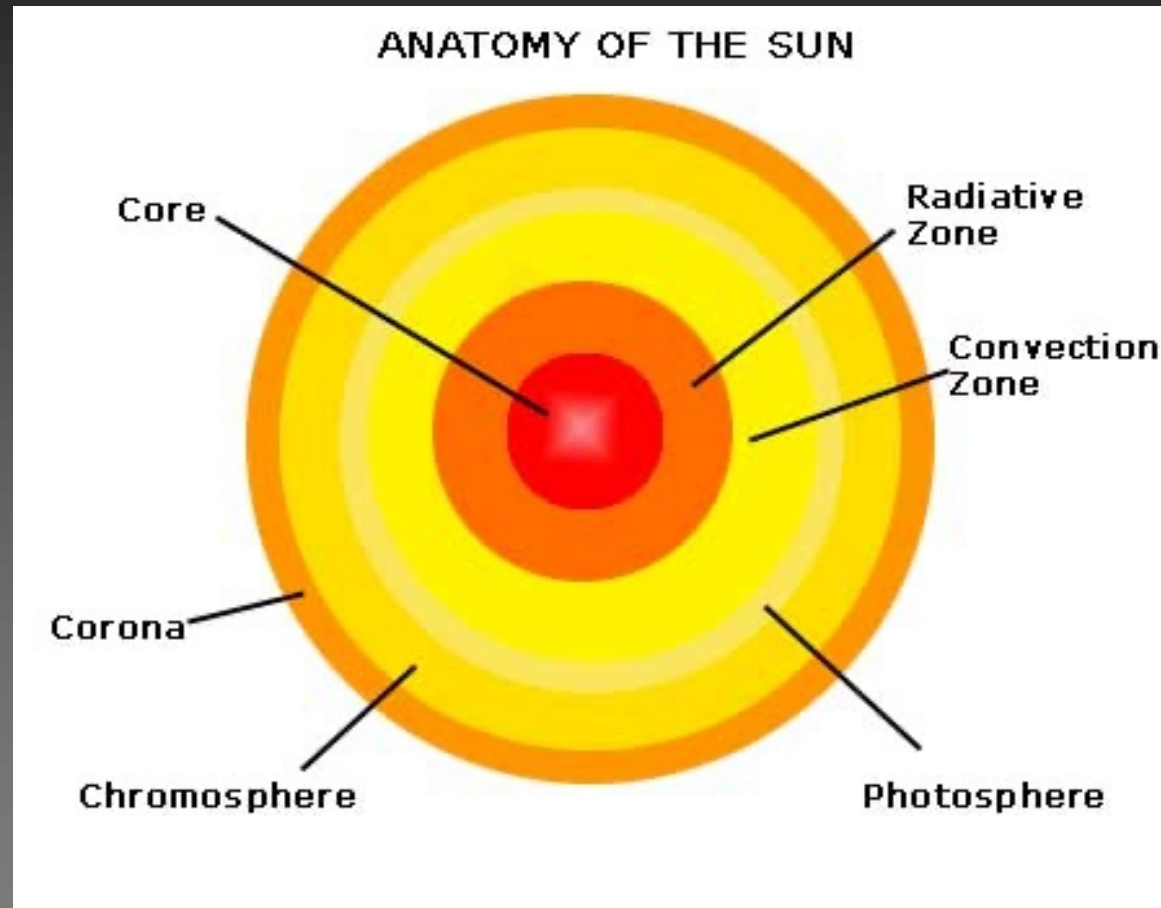


# Overall structure



# The Sun's atmosphere

- Photosphere: yellowish color. The part we see,  $T=5800$  K.
- The Sun is a giant sphere of gas - so it doesn't have a well defined surface
- Talking about the surface: we mean the photosphere
- The point where atmosphere becomes completely opaque is the photosphere (defines diameter of the Sun)

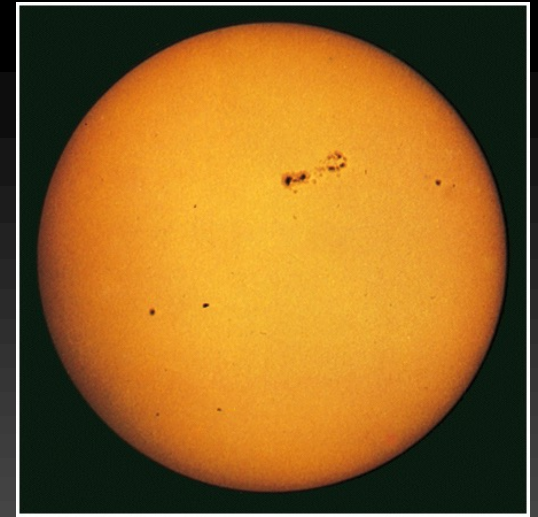


# Solar photosphere as a function of depth

<u>Depth (km)</u>	<u>% Light</u>	<u>Temp (K)</u>	<u>Pressure(bars)</u>
0	99.5	4465	$6.8 \times 10^{-3}$
100	97	4780	$1.7 \times 10^{-2}$
200	89	5180	$3.9 \times 10^{-2}$
250	80	5455	$5.8 \times 10^{-2}$
300	64	5840	$8.3 \times 10^{-2}$
350	37	6420	$1.2 \times 10^{-1}$
375	18	6910	$1.4 \times 10^{-1}$
400	4	7610	$1.6 \times 10^{-1}$

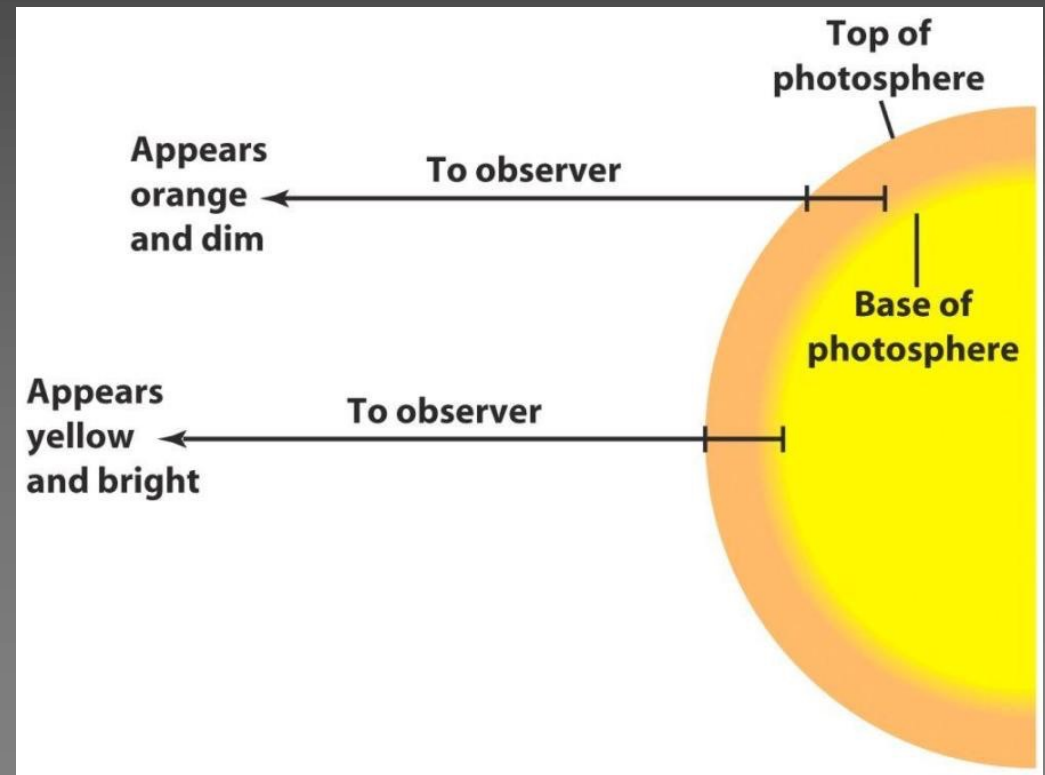
# Limb darkening

- Outer portions of photosphere being cooler
- Photons travel about the same path length



Dimmer light comes from higher, relatively cool layer within the photosphere

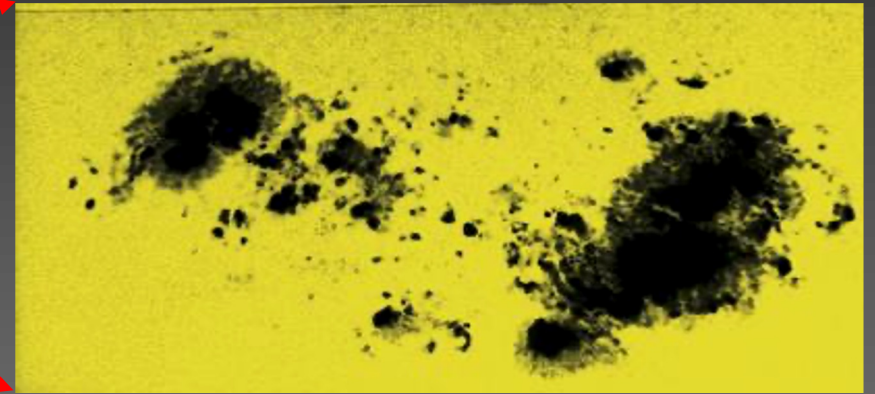
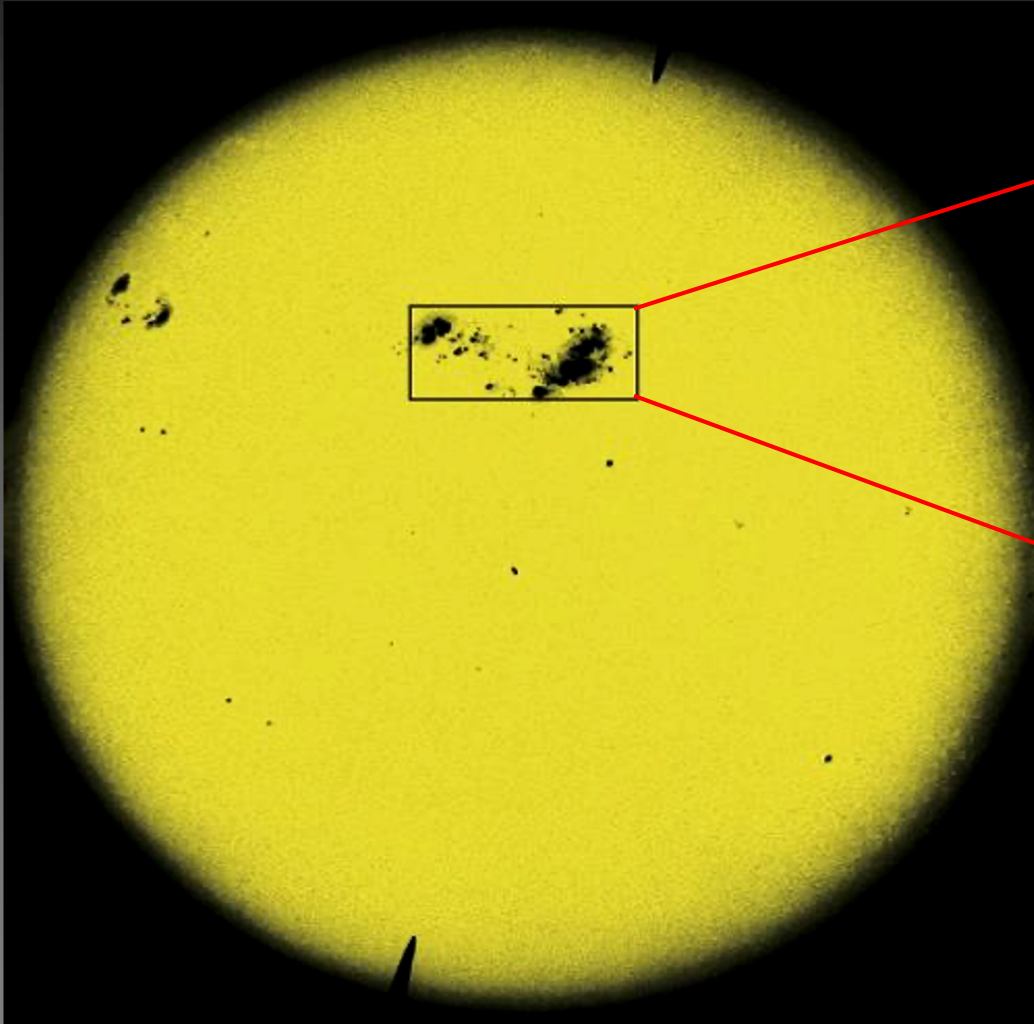
Bright light comes from low-lying, hot layer within the photosphere





- For something not having a well defined surface, it doesn't look very fuzzy, it looks well defined?
- We see about 400 km into photosphere - a tiny distance (0.06%) compared to radius (696,000 km) so looks sharp ("unresolved" to eyes).

# Sunspots



Roughly Earth-sized

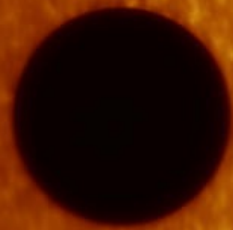
Last ~2 months

Usually in pairs

Follow solar rotation



Palma

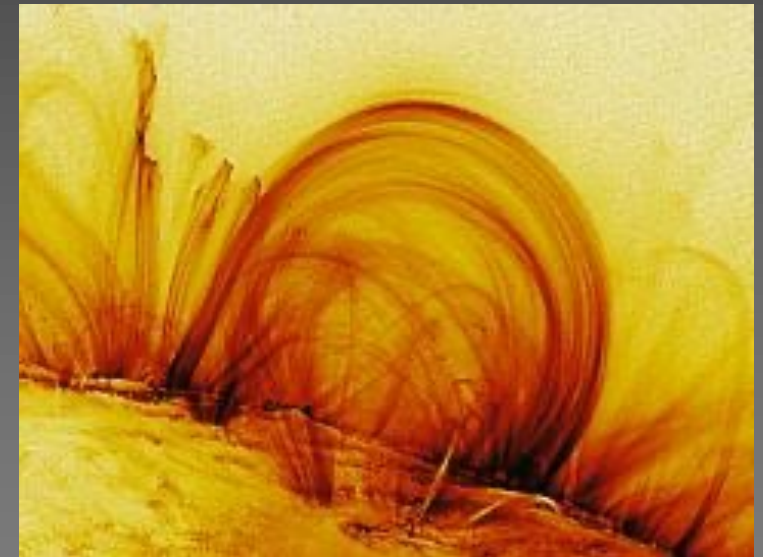
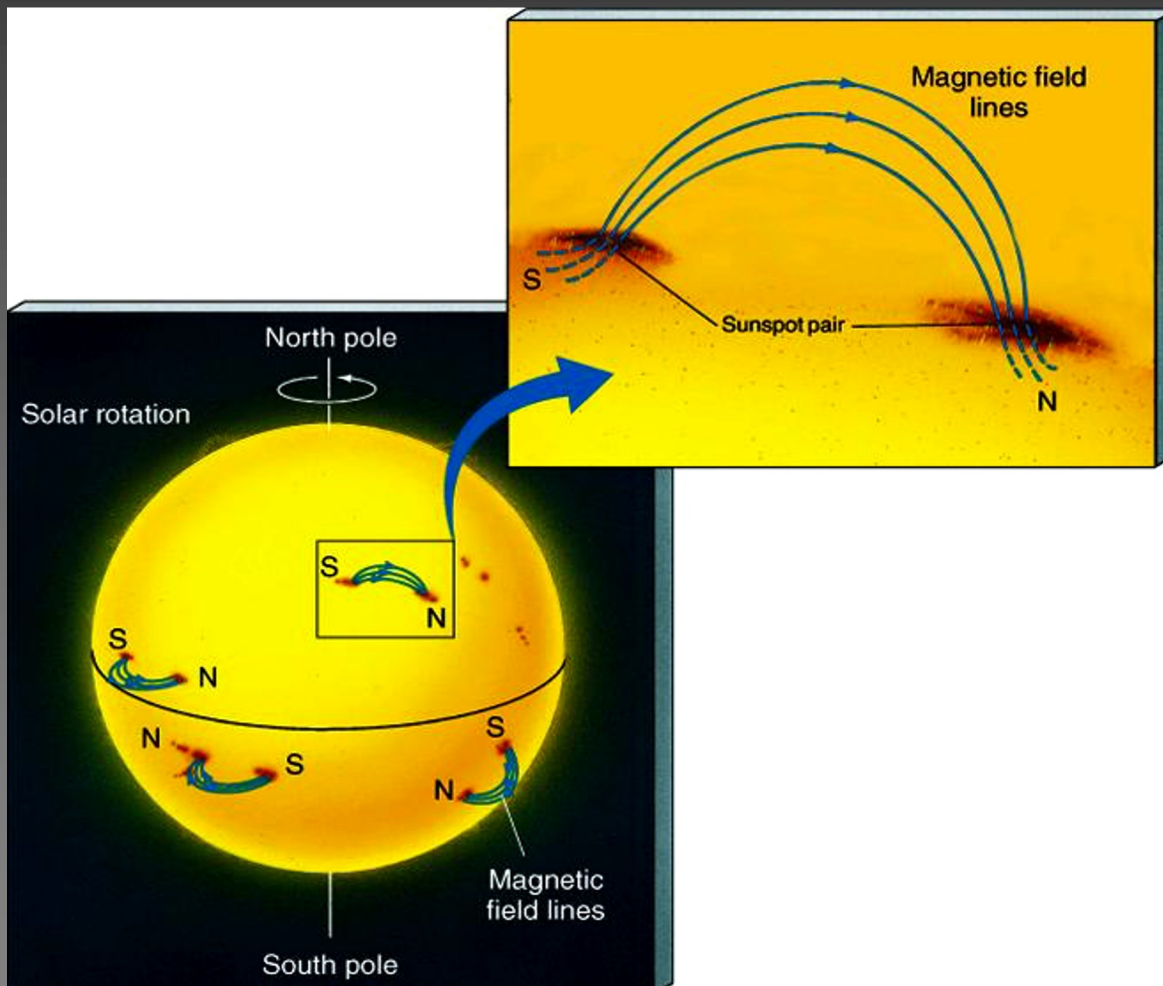




# Sunspots

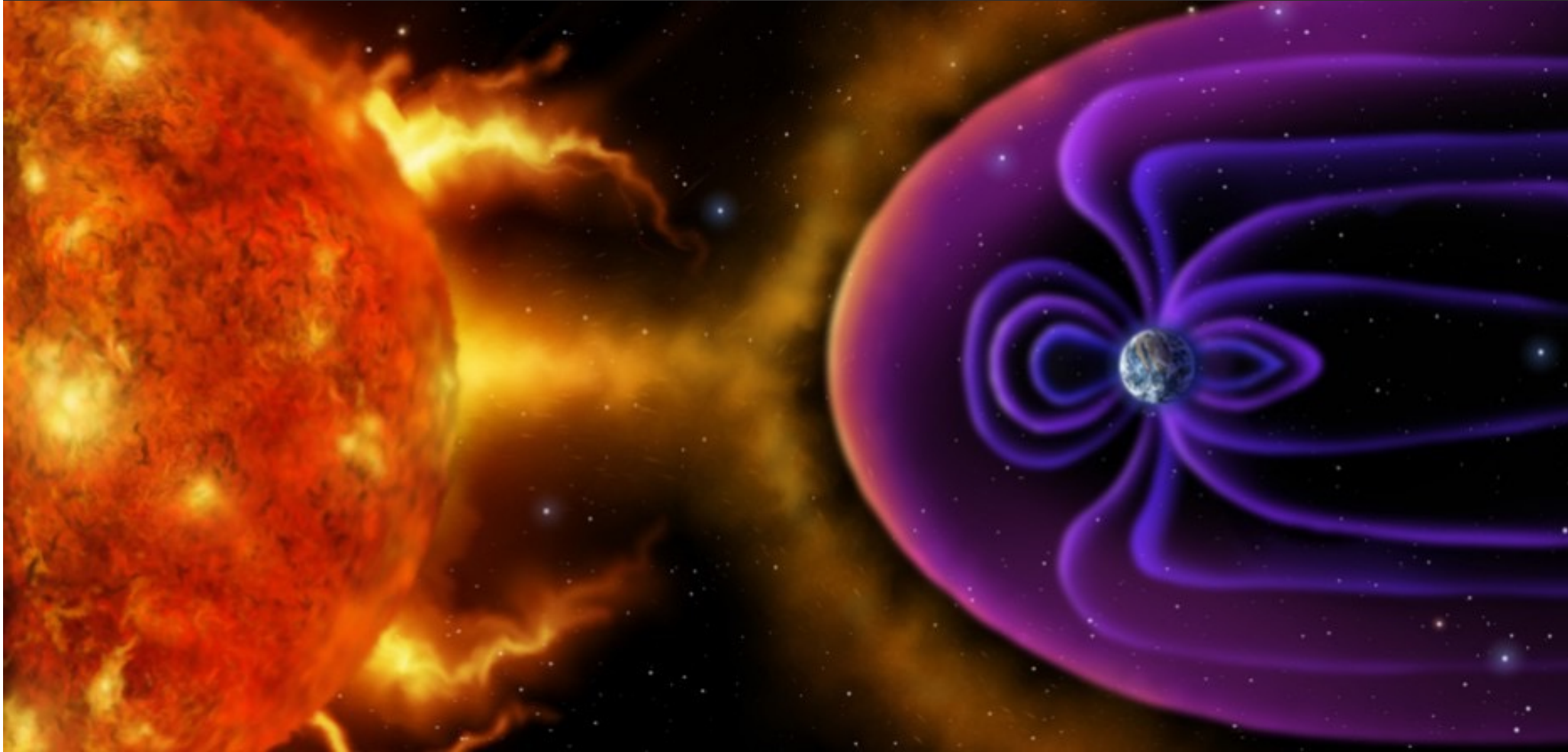
They are darker because they are cooler (4500 K vs. 5800 K).

Related to loops of the Sun's magnetic field.

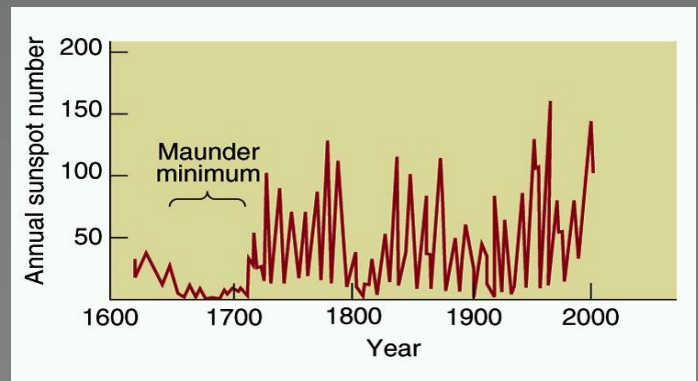
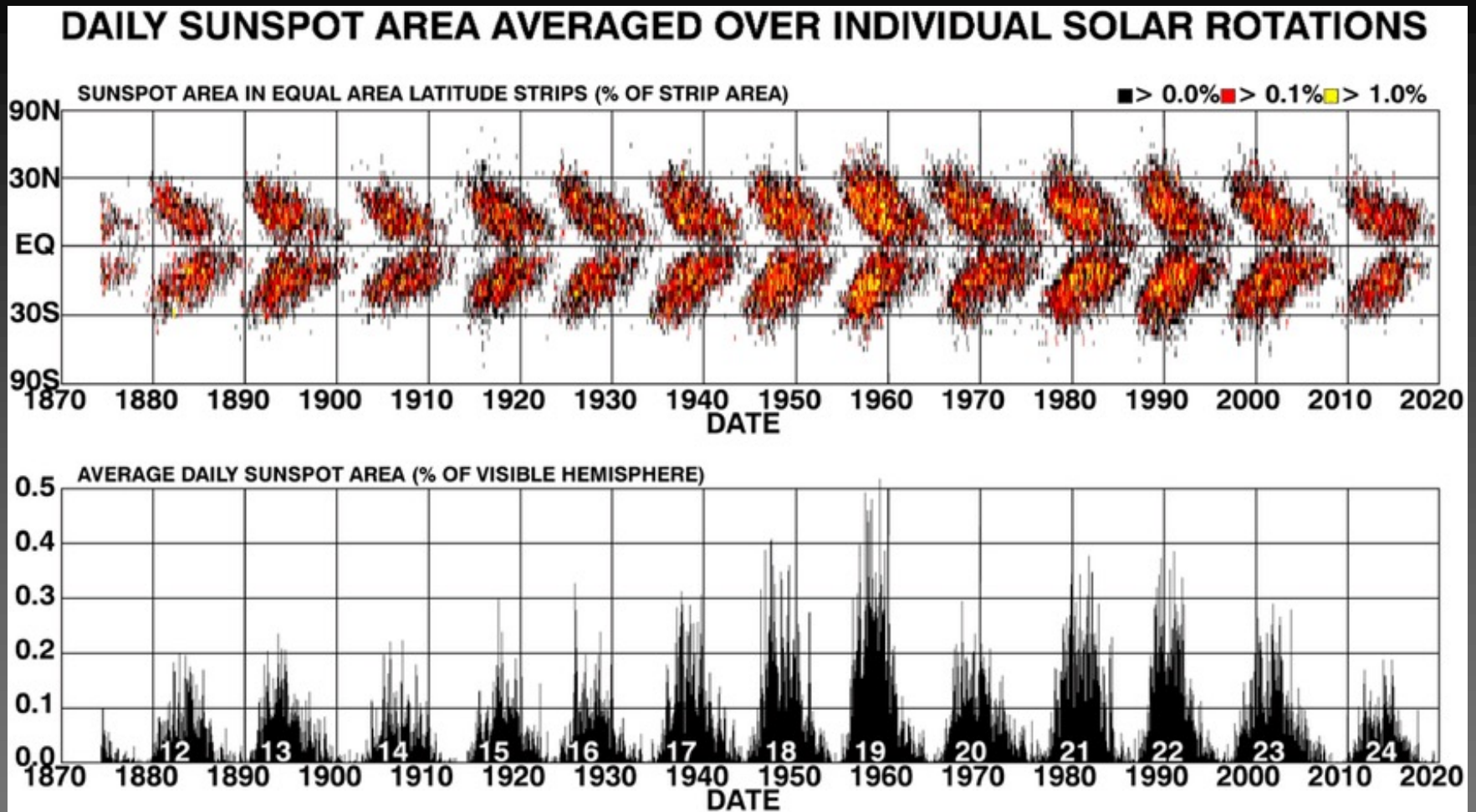


radiation from hot gas flowing along magnetic field loop at limb of Sun.

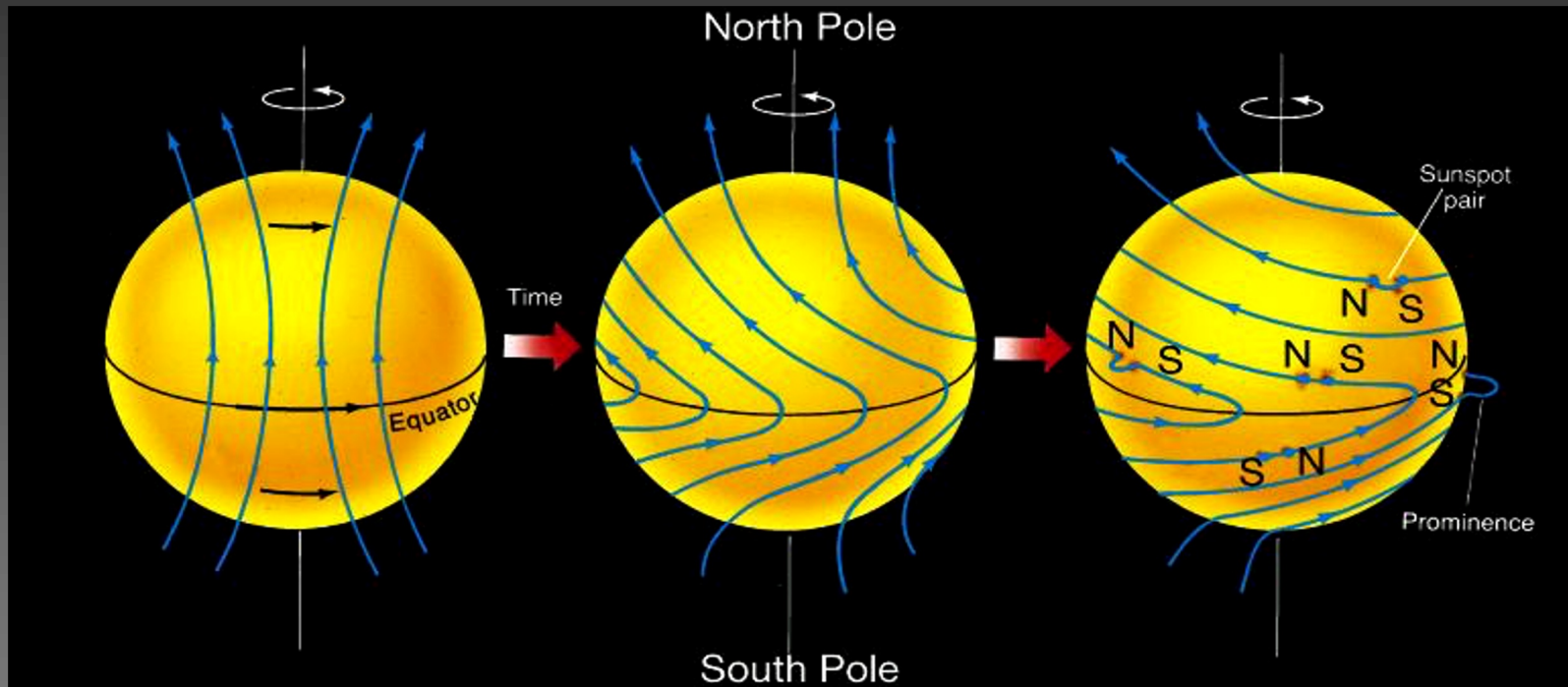
# Solar Storms!



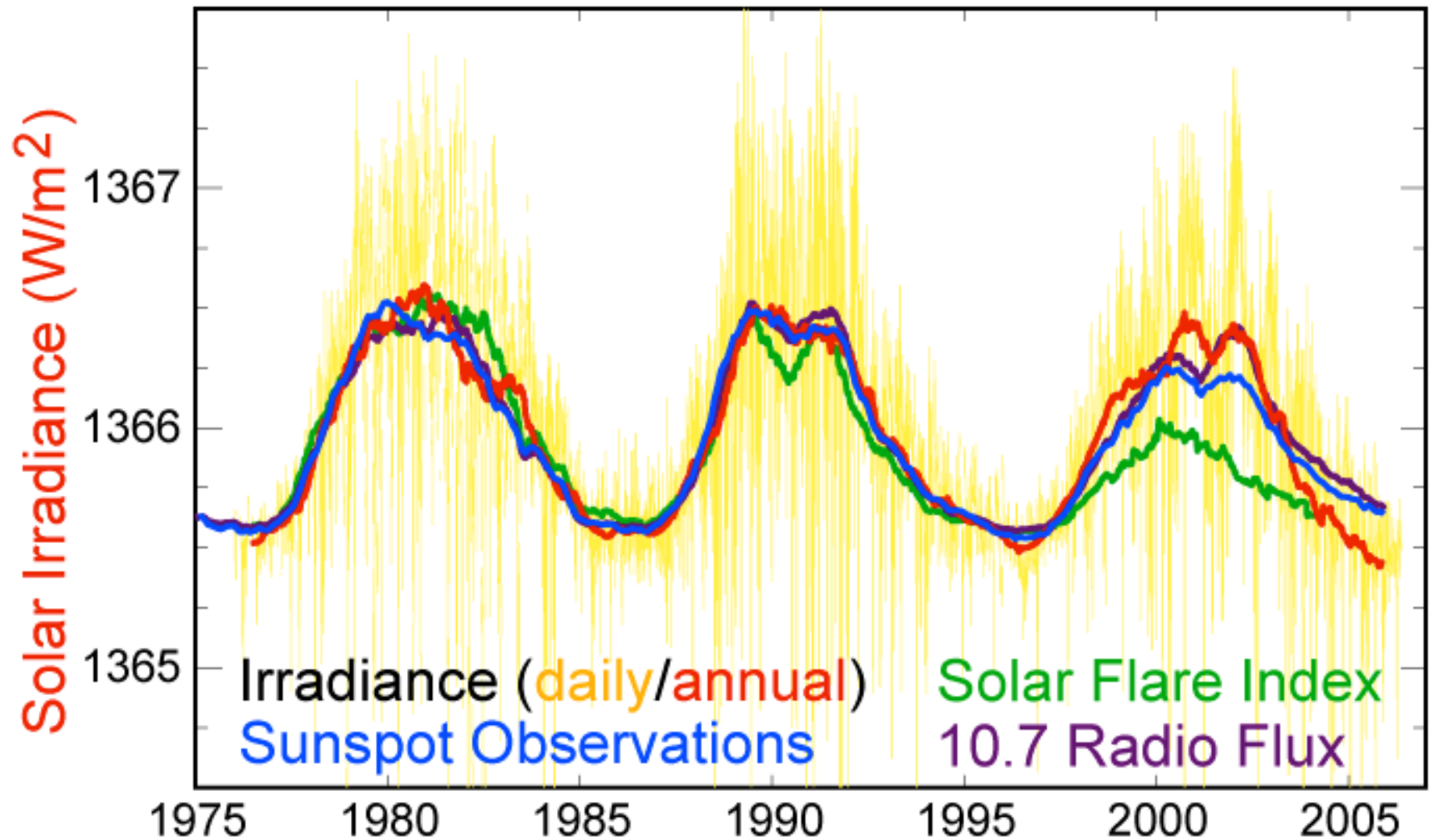
Sunspot numbers vary on a 11 year cycle.



Sun's magnetic field changes direction every 11 years.  
Maximum sunspot activity occurs about halfway between reversals.



# Solar Cycle Variations



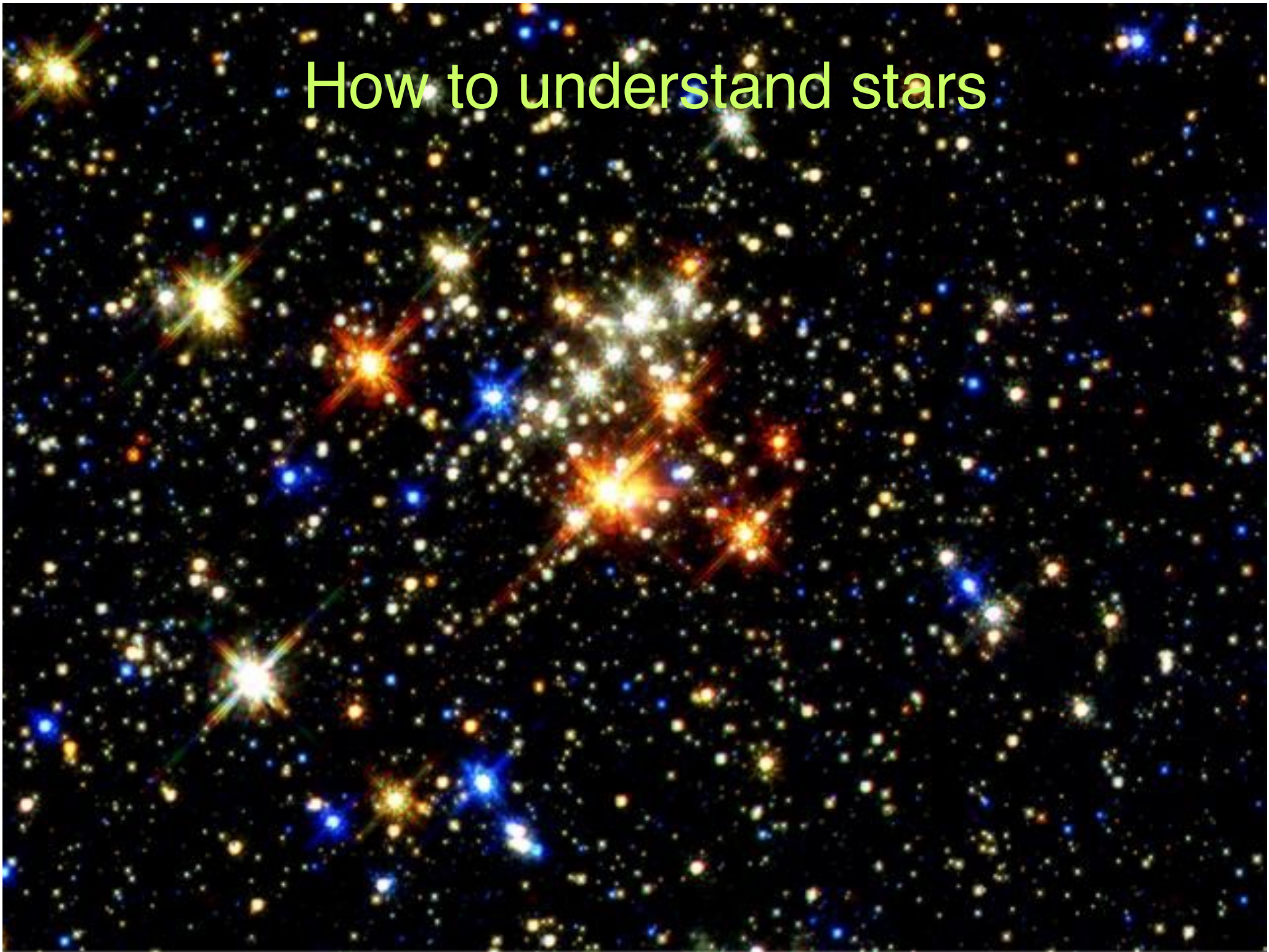
0.1% variation from maximum to minimum

# Announcements

- Homework #2 due Thursday.
- VLA Tour Saturday Sept 28. 8am – 4pm, lunch provided
- How many can go? Can drive?



# How to understand stars



# What are stars?

Are they all alike?

Is the Sun typical?

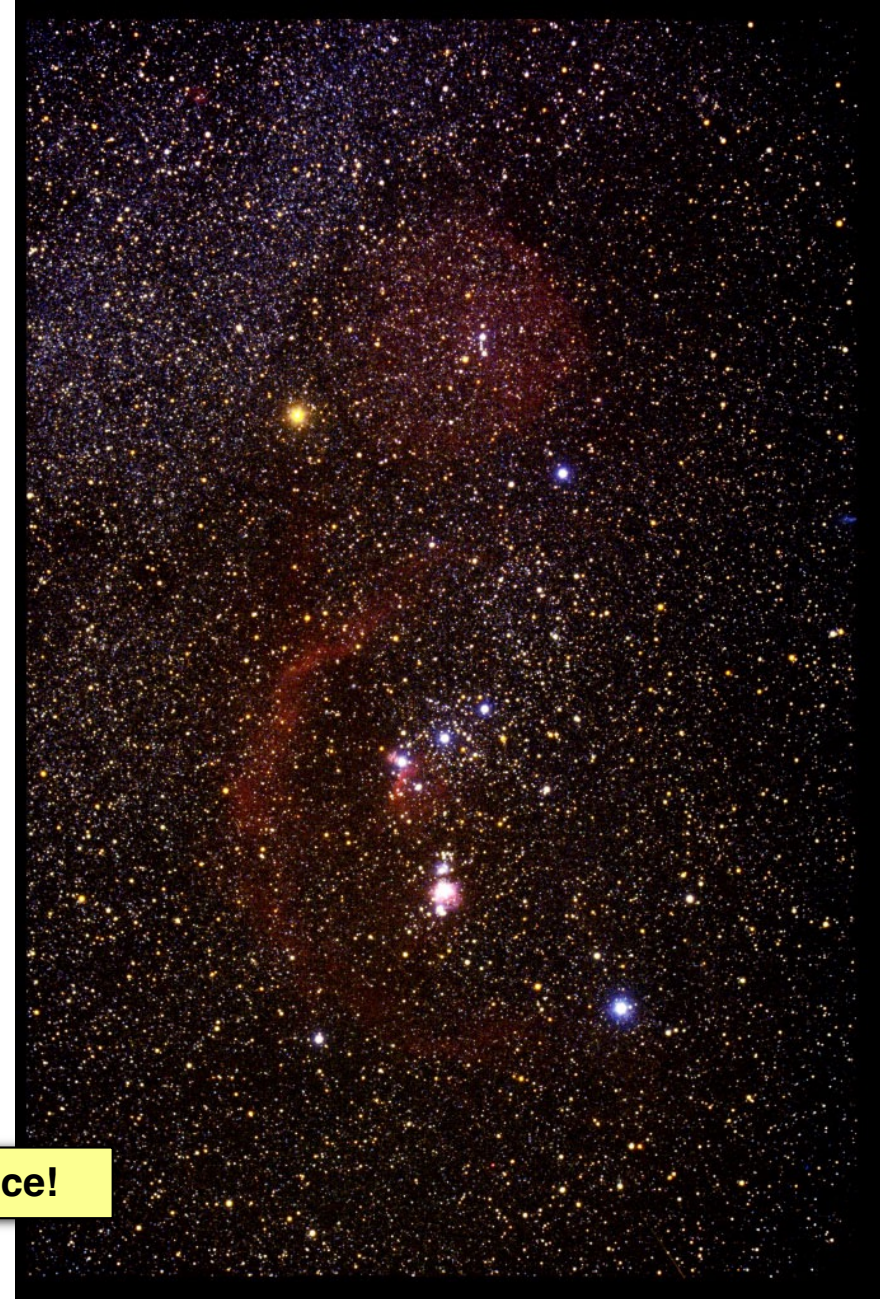
Picture of Orion illustrates:

- The huge number of stars
- Colors
- Interstellar gas

How can we describe/classify stars?

- Temperature
- Luminosity (total energy output)
- Mass (orbital motion)
- Physical sizes
- True motion in space

**To estimate those parameters, we need to know the distance!**





# The parallax formula for distance

- $d = 1/p$  where  $p$  is the parallax angle and  $d$  is the distance in pc.
- Distance units: 1 pc = 3.26 ly =  $3.09 \times 10^{16}$  m = 206,265 AU
- It took us until 1838 to measure stellar parallaxes since the stars are so far away => small parallax angles

## Limitations

- Until recently we only knew accurate (0.01") parallaxes for a few 100 stars (=>  $d \sim 100$  pc)
- In the 1990's the ESA satellite Hipparchos measured over 100,000 parallaxes with an accuracy of 0.001"
- Gaia has measured over a billion stars to 2 kpc
- With VLBI we can measure  $10 \mu\text{as}$  parallaxes

Gaia satellite

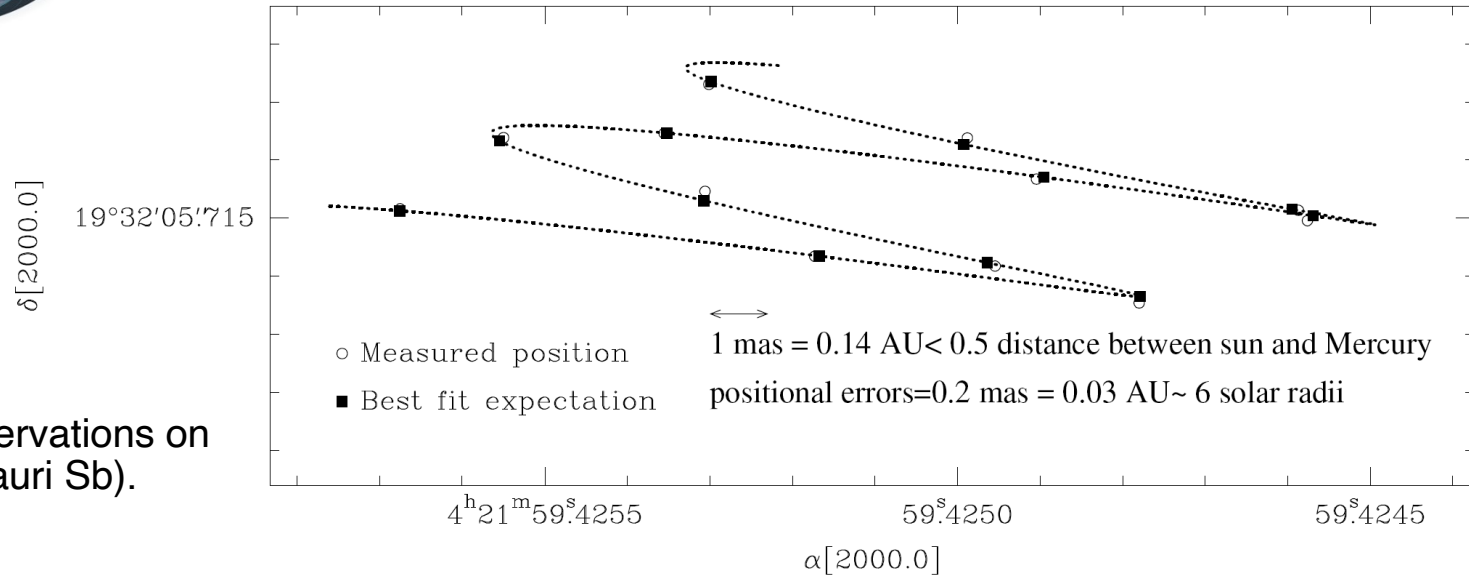




# Astrometry with VLBI

VLBI=Very Log Baseline Interferometry, more on this later in the radio astronomy lecture

Parallax and proper motion of T Tau S



12 epochs of observations on a young star (T Tauri Sb).

Distance= $147.5 \pm 0.8$  pc

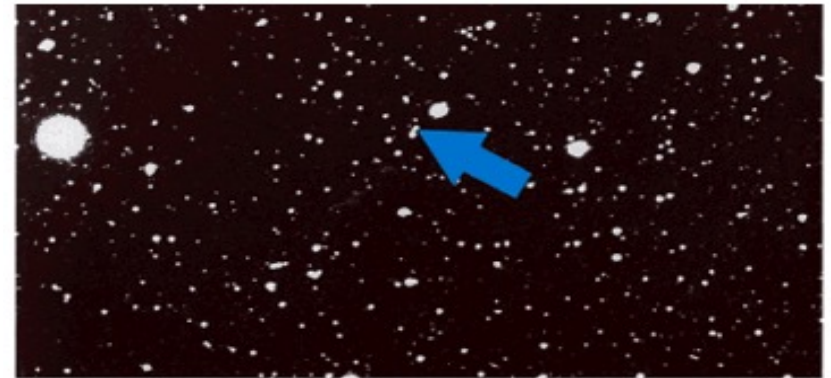
Loinard et al. (2006)

Why is the star not outlining an ellipse on the sky?

Because of *proper motion*.

# Proper motion

- Caused by physical movement of a star with respect to our Solar system
- This is in contrast to parallax which is an apparent motion of the star due to the motion of the Earth
- Proper motion is the angle a star moves per year (angular motion on the sky), and it is a linear drift
- The superposition of this linear drift and the elliptical motion from the parallax effect leads to a 'wavy' path on the sky



August 24, 1894



May 30, 1916

**This star moved 4' over this time - a huge proper motion of  $10''.9/\text{yr}$ .**

## Tangential velocity

$v_t = 4.74 \mu d$ , where  $\mu$  is the proper motion ["/yr] and  $d$  is the distance [pc]; this choice of constants gives  $v_t$  in the units of km/s.

**Dependent on distance**

## Radial velocity

Given by Doppler shift:

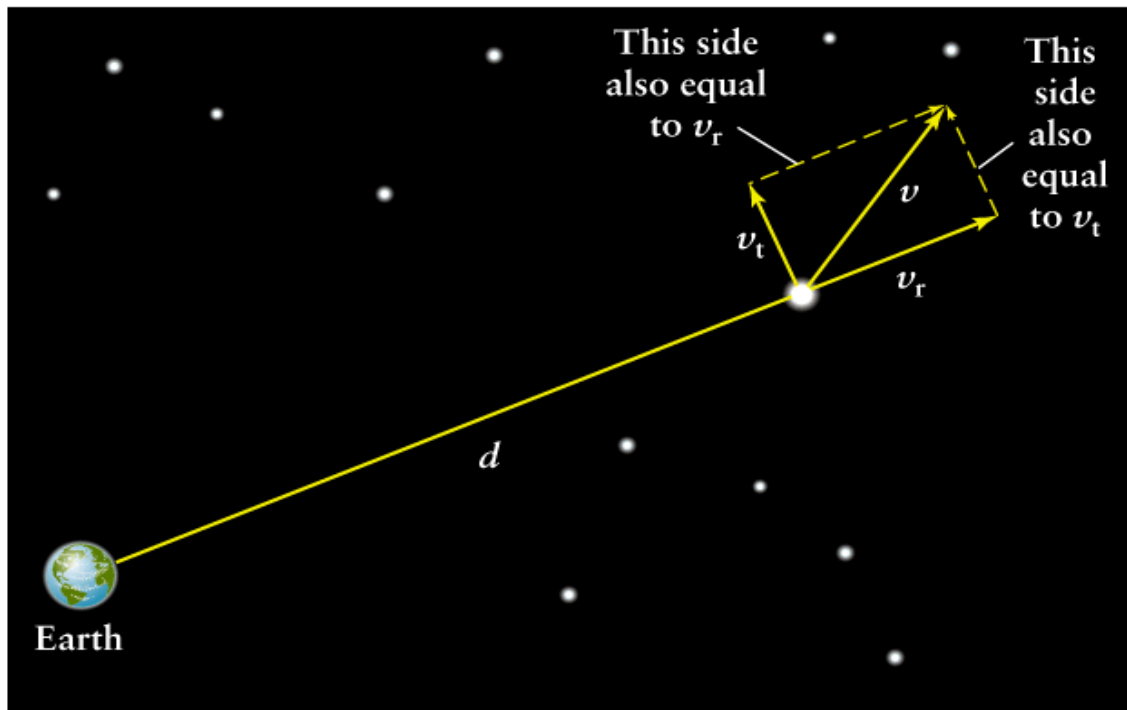
$$v_r = [(\lambda_{\text{observed}} - \lambda_{\text{emitted}}) / \lambda_{\text{emitted}}] c$$

**Independent on distance**

## Space Velocity

Speed and direction of star. From Pythagorean theorem

$$V = \sqrt{V_t^2 + V_r^2} = \sqrt{(4.74 \mu d)^2 + V_r^2}$$



**Typical stellar space velocities are 20-100 km/s.**

Three quantities need to be measured - distance is the most difficult one.

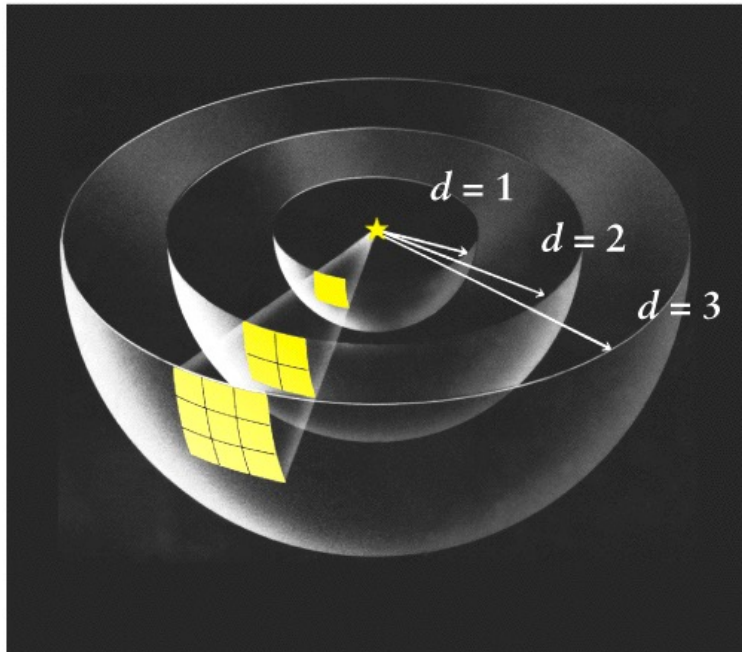
# Why care about stellar motions?

- A tool to study structure of our Galaxy
  - Motion of the Sun (towards constellation of Hercules with 20km/s)
  - Rotation of the Galactic Plane (local)
  - Odd phenomena/stars that might indicate special events
  - Past merger events

# How bright is a star?

- Luminosity ( $L$ , intrinsic property): the total energy output, a physical property of the star. Doesn't depend on distance.
- Apparent brightness ( $F$ , or  $b$ ): measures how bright a star appears to be on a distance. Does depend on distance!
- The brightness, or intensity, of light diminishes as the inverse square of the distance.

$$F = L/4\pi d^2$$



Same amount of radiation from a star must illuminate a bigger area as distance from star increases. The area increases as the square of the distance.

# Apparent magnitudes

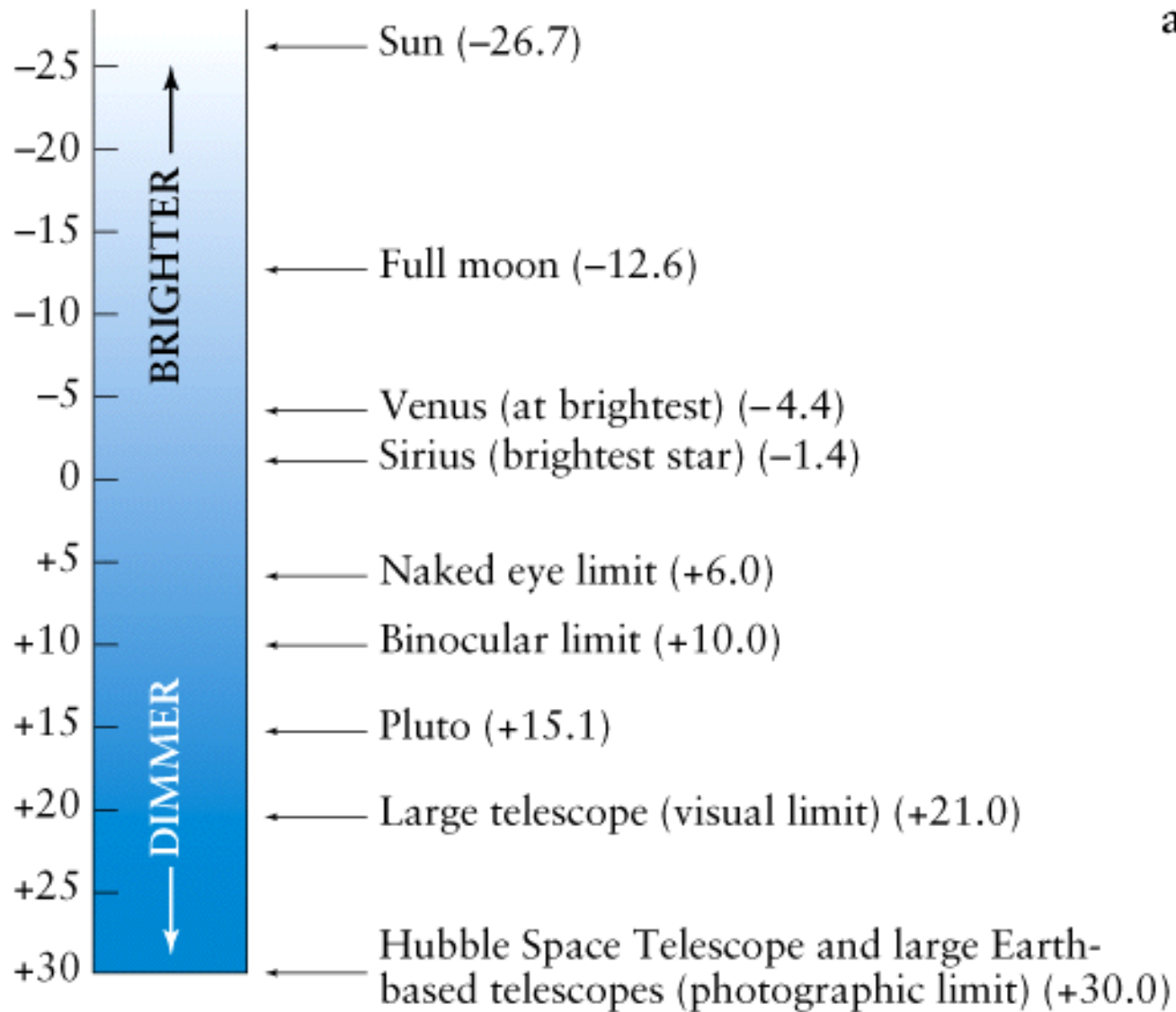
- Measurement of brightness of stars as they seem from Earth.
- Smaller magnitudes mean brighter stars and defined such that 5 magnitude differences implies a factor of 100 in brightness
- Magnitude difference related to brightness ratio:

$$m_2 - m_1 = 2.5 \log \left( \frac{b_1}{b_2} \right)$$

- Also note: if  $\frac{b_1}{b_2} = 100$  , then  $2.5 \log \left( \frac{b_1}{b_2} \right) = 5$
- This is a logarithmic scale - no zero point is defined. Done by defining certain stars to have zero magnitude.



## The apparent magnitude scale - some examples:



a

Apparent magnitude difference ( $m_2 - m_1$ )	Ratio of apparent brightness ( $b_1/b_2$ )
1	2.512
2	$(2.512)^2 = 6.31$
3	$(2.512)^3 = 15.85$
4	$(2.512)^4 = 39.82$
5	$(2.512)^5 = 100$
10	$(2.512)^{10} = 10^4$
15	$(2.512)^{15} = 10^6$
20	$(2.512)^{20} = 10^8$

A simple equation relates the difference between two stars' apparent magnitudes to the ratio of their brightnesses:

Magnitude difference related to brightness ratio

$$m_2 - m_1 = 2.5 \log \left( \frac{b_1}{b_2} \right)$$

**A factor of 2.512 difference in brightness per magnitude. Box 17-3.**

# Absolute magnitude

## Caution:

Apparent magnitude is NOT power output! A star may have bright (small) apparent magnitude because it is close to us, or it might have a bright (small) magnitude because it produces a huge amount of light.

As scientists, we want a brightness scale that takes distance into account and measures the *total* energy output of the star.

## Absolute magnitude:

Definition: the apparent magnitude a star would have if it were precisely 10 pc away from us

$$m - M = 5 \log(d) - 5$$

$m$  is apparent magnitude (measured)

$d$  is distance (calculated from parallax)

$M$  is absolute magnitude

The absolute magnitude is a more useful measure of a star's power output (Luminosity).

Examples:

<u>M</u>	<u>Star</u>
-5	Betelgeuse
-1.5	Sirius
+5	Sun
+10	Sirius B

Since  $L = 4\pi d^2 b$ , we can compare any star's luminosity to the Sun's by a ratio:

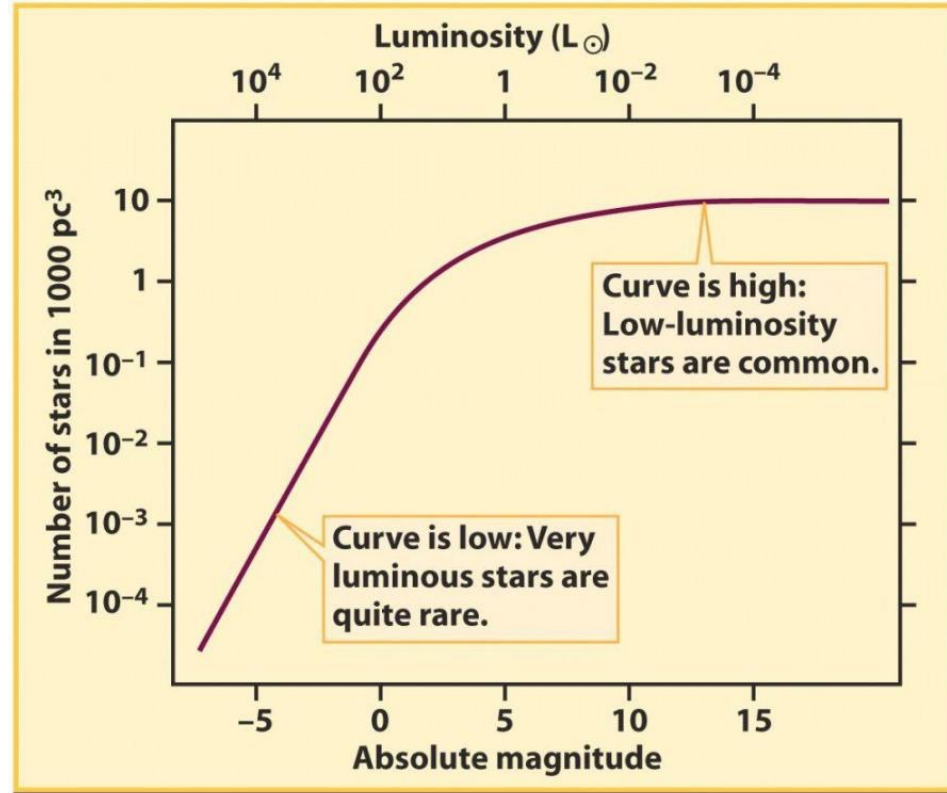
$$\frac{L_*}{L_{Sun}} = \frac{4\pi d_*^2 b_*}{4\pi d_{sun}^2 b_{Sun}} = \left( \frac{d_*}{d_{Sun}} \right)^2 \frac{b_*}{b_{Sun}}$$

Knowing relative distance and brightness, we know the star's relative luminosity. Finally, you can show that

$$M_{Sun} - M_* = 2.5 \log \frac{L_*}{L_{Sun}}$$

# Luminosity function

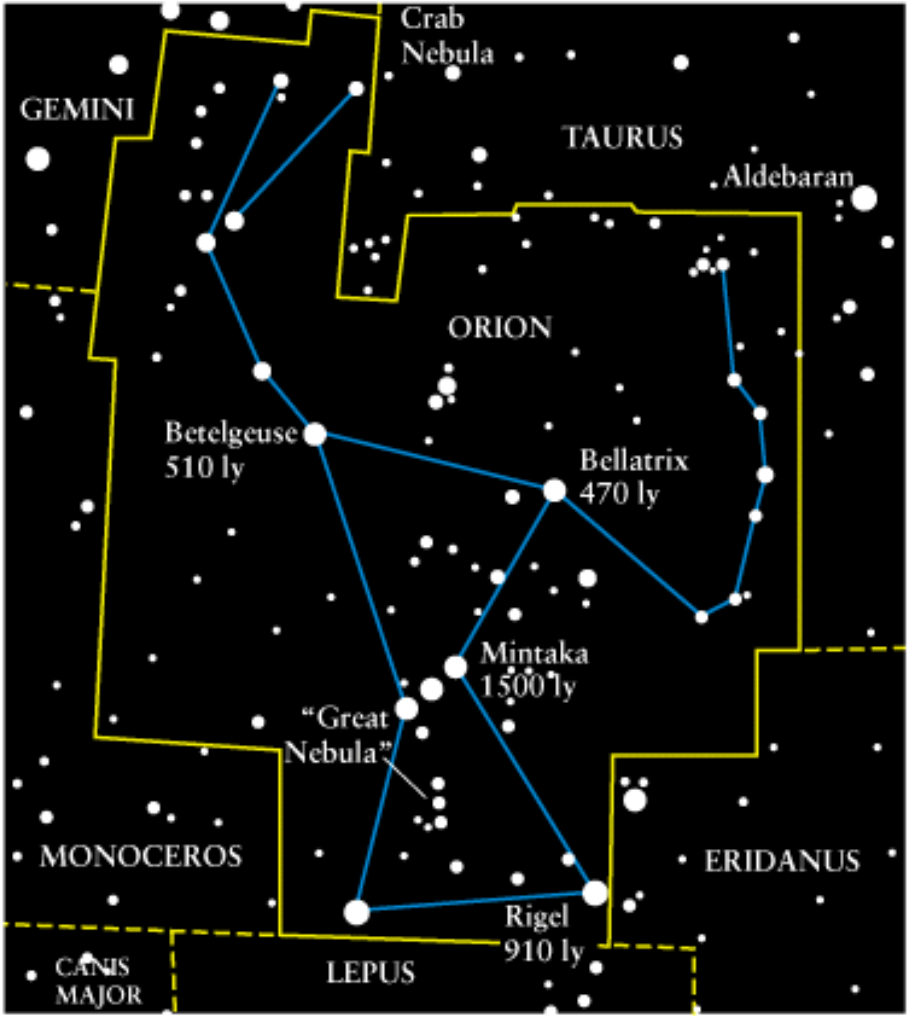
- Describes the relative numbers of stars with different luminosities
- There are more faint stars than bright
- Note the enormous range in luminosity





Are you seeing neighbor stars, or highly luminous (but distant) stars?

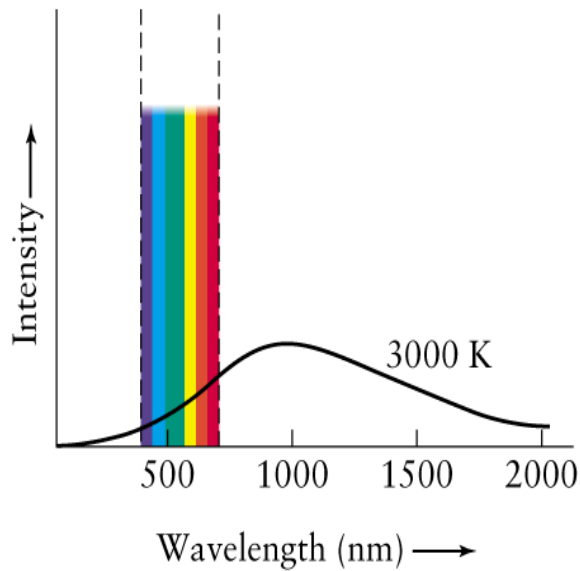
Recall that 1 pc is 3.26 ly. E.g. Betelgeuse is about 160 pc away.



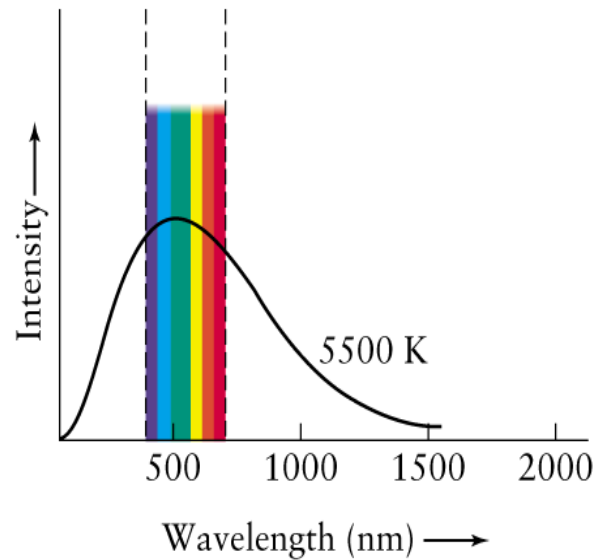
b

# Colors of stars

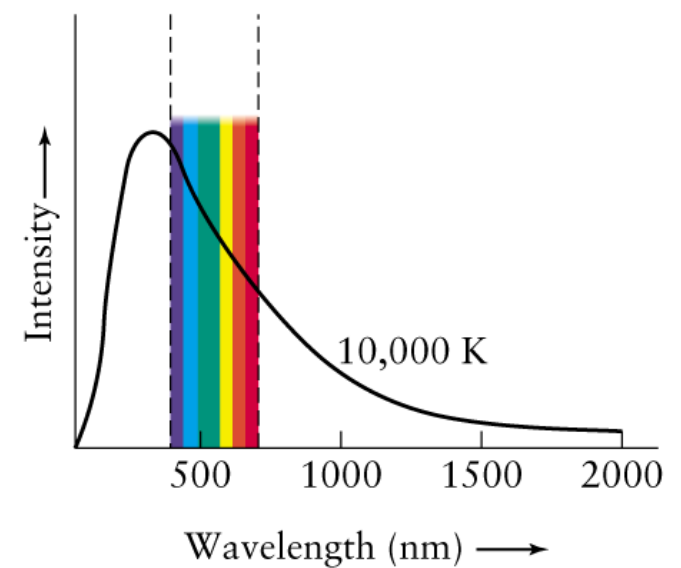
- From Wien's law  $\lambda_{\max} = 0.0029/T$  we expect hotter objects to be bluer.



a This star looks red



b This star looks yellow-white

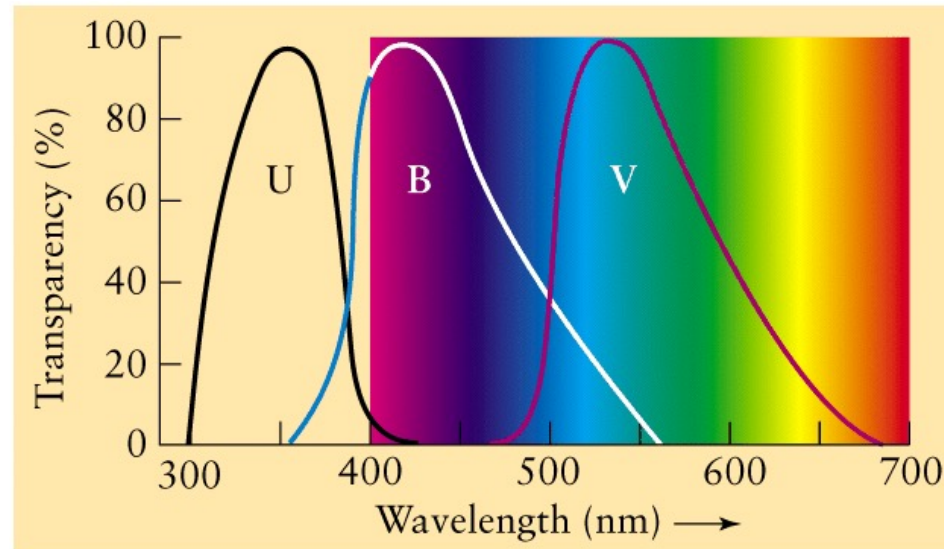


c This star looks blue-white



# To measure colors

- A set of filters can be used to determine the colors of stars



The UB system

- In fact, we don't need distances - apparent magnitudes in each filter works
- If a B magnitude is small, does that mean that the star is very blue?
  - Not necessarily, the V and R magnitudes might be even smaller. Then the star is brighter in redder filters.

# To quantify color: color index

- Need brightness measurements through at least 2 filters to determine color
- Example: B-V color index

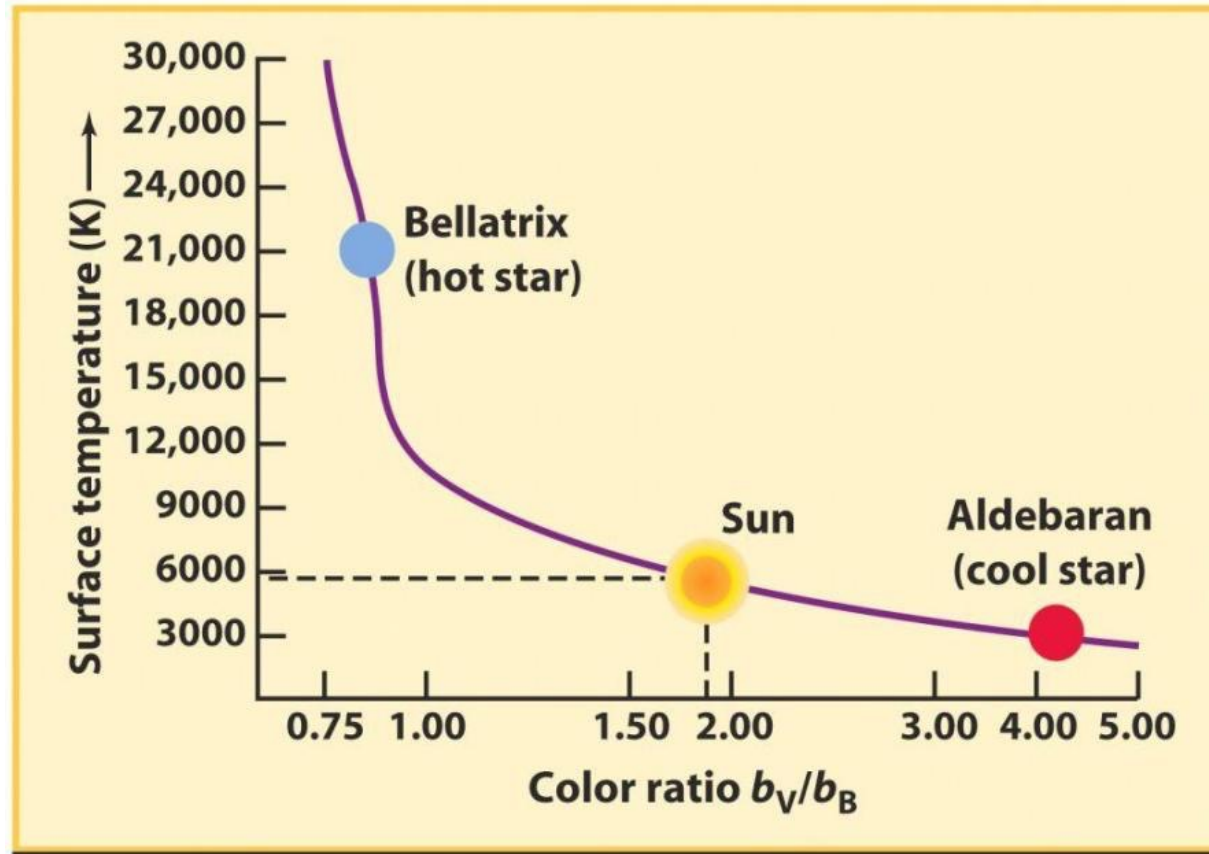
$$CI = B - V = 2.5 \log \left( \frac{b_V}{b_B} \right) + const$$

- The constant is chosen so that a star at  $10^4$  K has a B-V = 0.0

table 19-1		Colors of Selected Stars		
Star	Surface temperature (K)	$b_V/b_B$	$b_B/b_U$	Apparent color
Bellatrix ( $\gamma$ Orionis)	21,500	0.81	0.45	Blue
Regulus ( $\alpha$ Leonis)	12,000	0.90	0.72	Blue-white
Sirius ( $\alpha$ Canis Majoris)	9400	1.00	0.96	Blue-white
Megrez ( $\delta$ Ursae Majoris)	8630	1.07	1.07	White
Altair ( $\alpha$ Aquilae)	7800	1.23	1.08	Yellow-white
Sun	5800	1.87	1.17	Yellow-white
Aldebaran ( $\alpha$ Tauri)	4000	4.12	5.76	Orange
Betelgeuse ( $\alpha$ Orionis)	3500	5.55	6.66	Red

Source: J.-C. Mermilliod, B. Hauck, and M. Mermilliod, University of Lausanne.

# Temperature, color and color ratio



- The  $b_V/b_B$  color ratio is small for hot stars, and large for cool stars.

# What are stars?

Are they all alike?

Is the Sun typical?

Picture of Orion illustrates:

- The huge number of stars
- Colors
- Interstellar gas

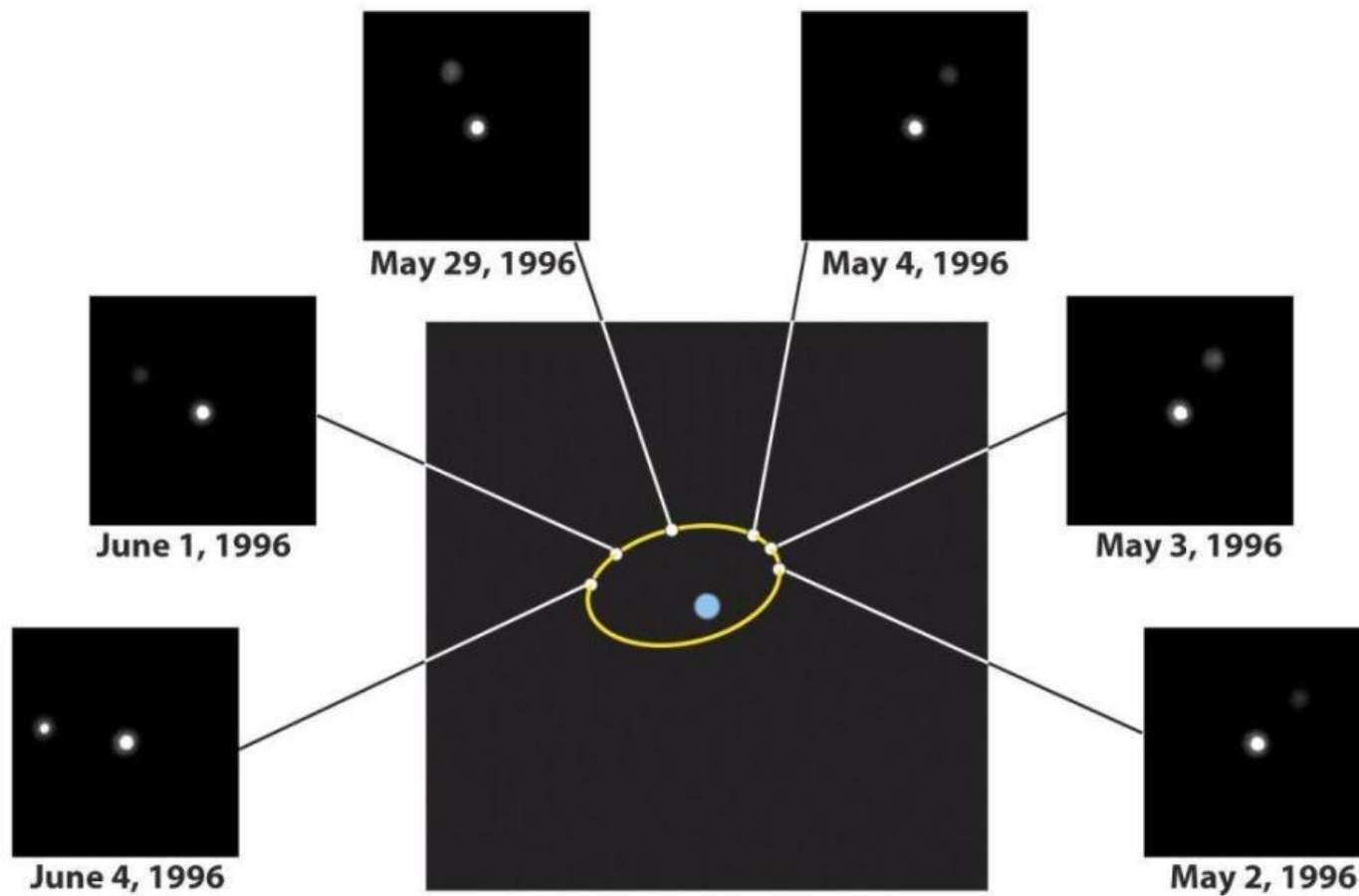
How can we describe/classify stars?

- Temperature
- Luminosity (total energy output)
- Mass (orbital motion)
- Physical sizes
- True motion in space

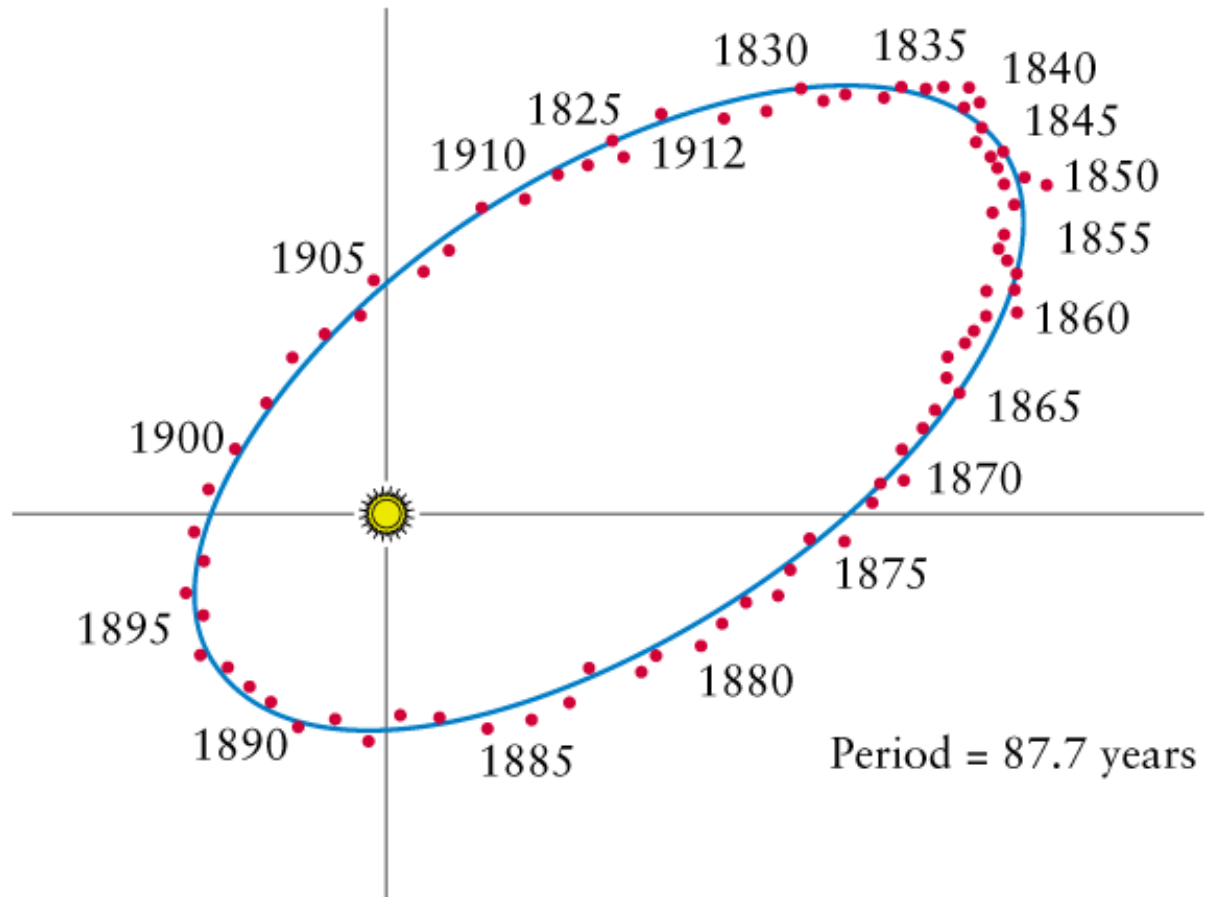


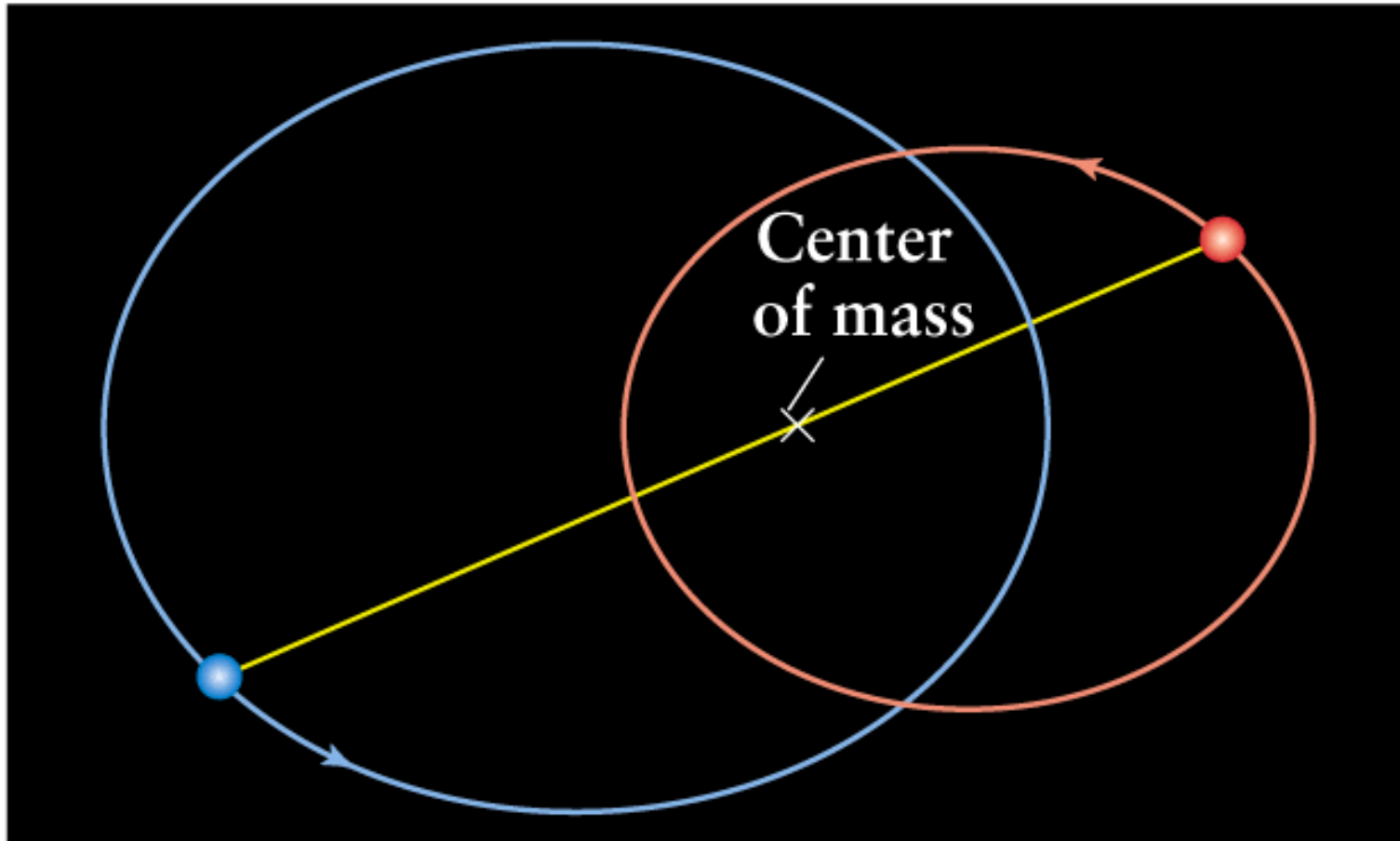
# Binary stars

1. Visual binaries - can see both stars. Binaries (any type) always orbit around the mutual center of mass.



Can plot orbit of either star around the other, treated as stationary.





b

$$a_1 M_1 = a_2 M_2$$

where  $a$  = semimajor axis,  $M$  = mass

Recall semimajor axis = half of the long axis of ellipse

Visual binaries allow direct calculation of stellar masses. Use Kepler's third law:

$$M_1 + M_2 = \frac{a^3}{P^2}$$

$M_1, M_2$  are masses of the two stars (in  $M_{\odot}$ )

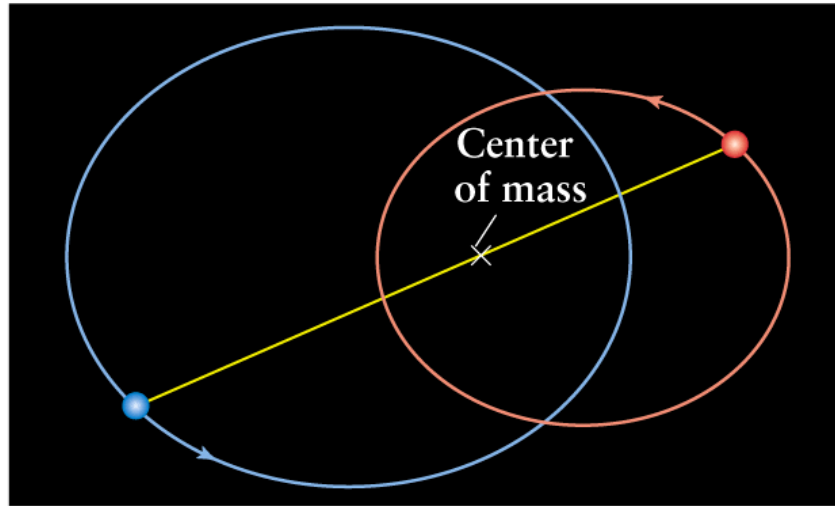
$a$  = semimajor axis of one star's orbit around the other (in units of Earth-Sun distance, AU)

$P$  = orbital period (in years)



Gives the sum of the masses, not individual masses. Need another equation:  
Use fact that the more massive star will be closer to center of mass:

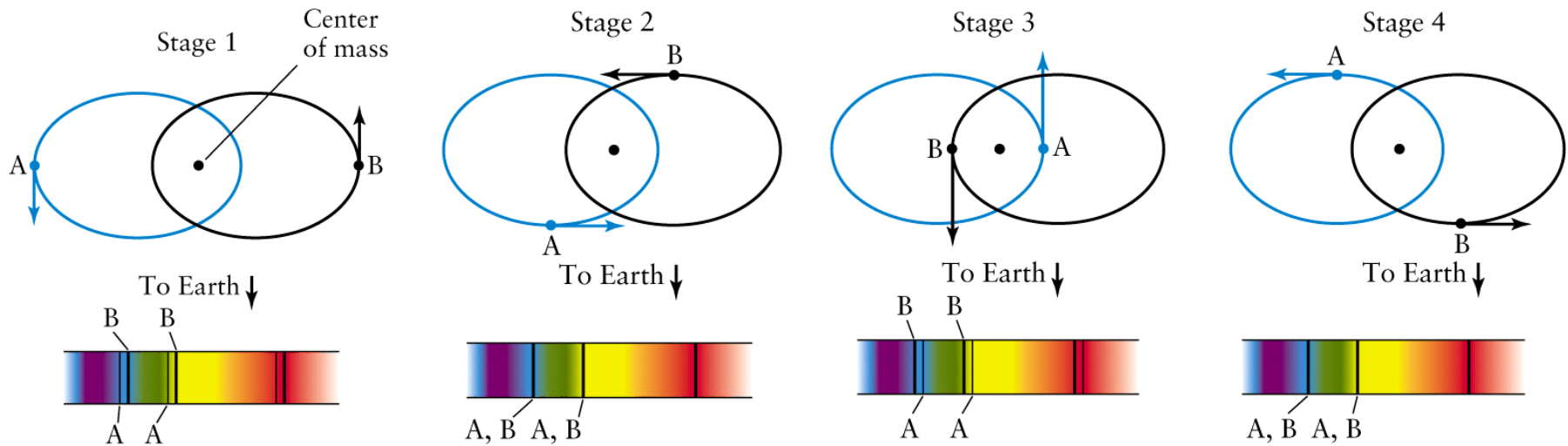
$$\frac{a_2}{a_1} = \frac{M_1}{M_2}$$



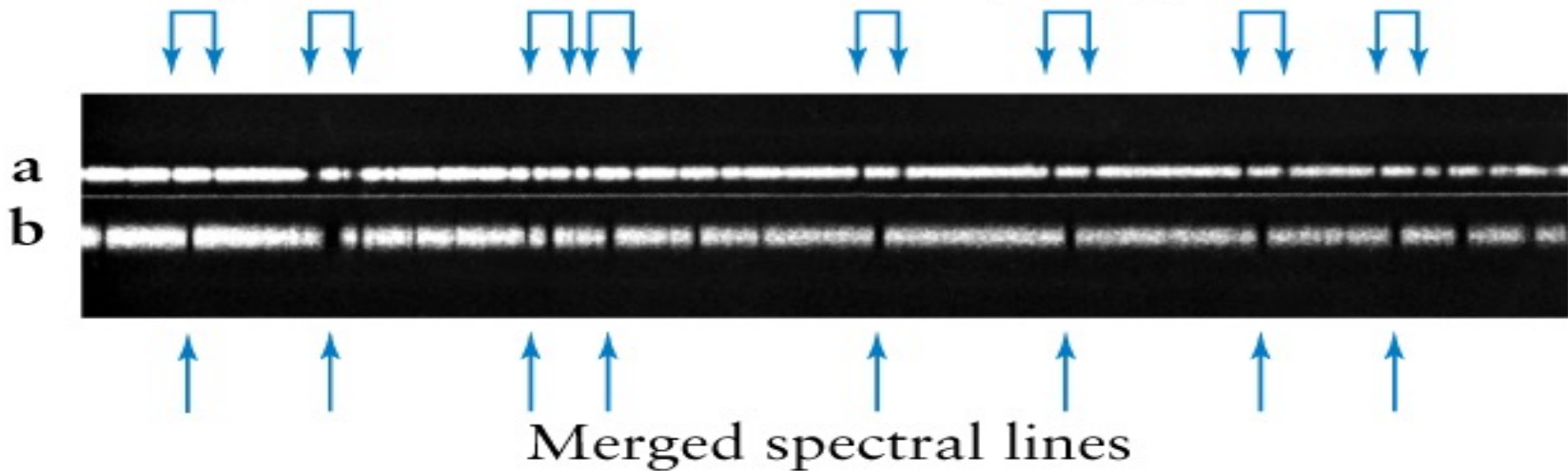
b

Two equations in two unknowns => can solve for individual masses.

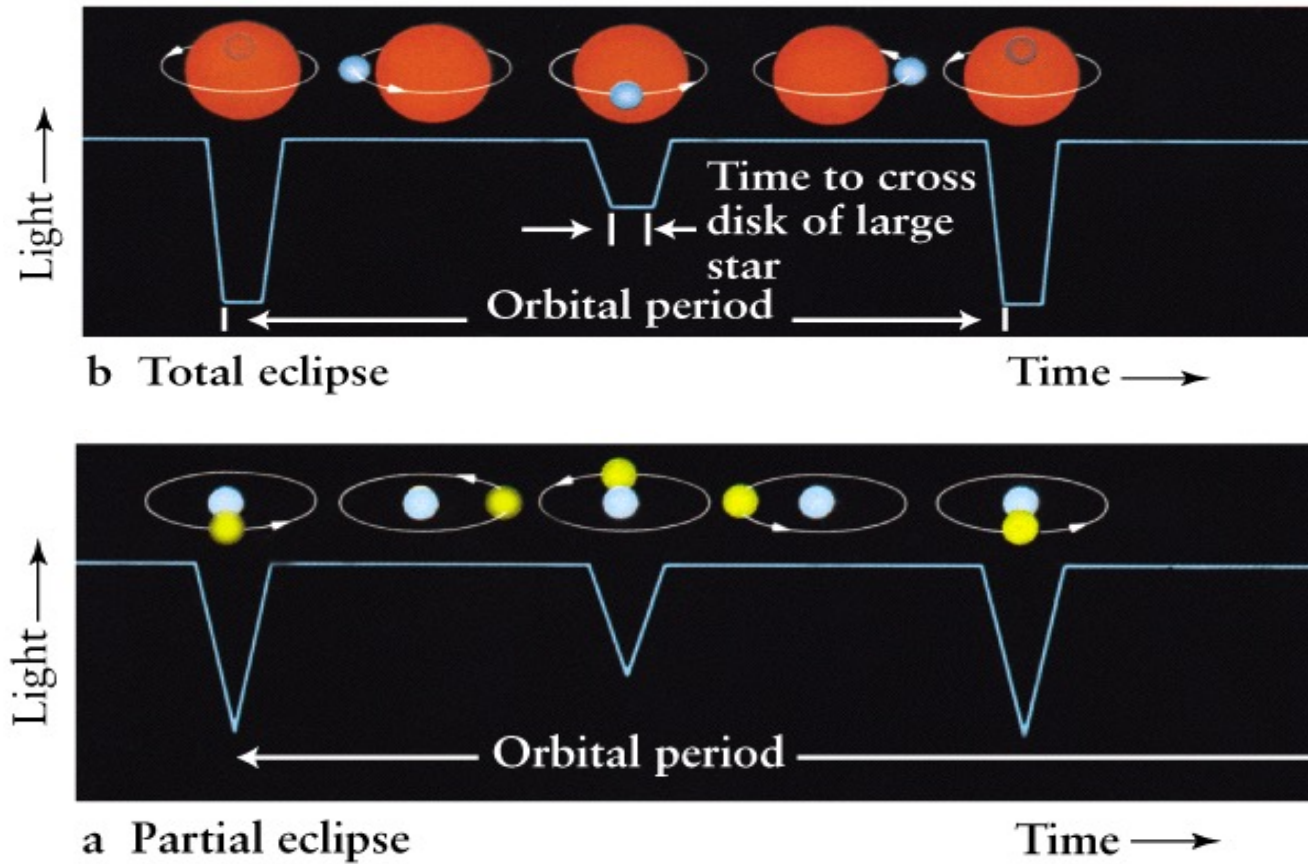
2. Spectroscopic binaries - even if you can't see both stars, might infer binary from spectrum



Spectral lines of stars split by Doppler effect



3. Eclipsing binaries - stars periodically eclipse each other. If resolved into 2 stars, can tell it's binary from "light curve" - plot of brightness vs. time.



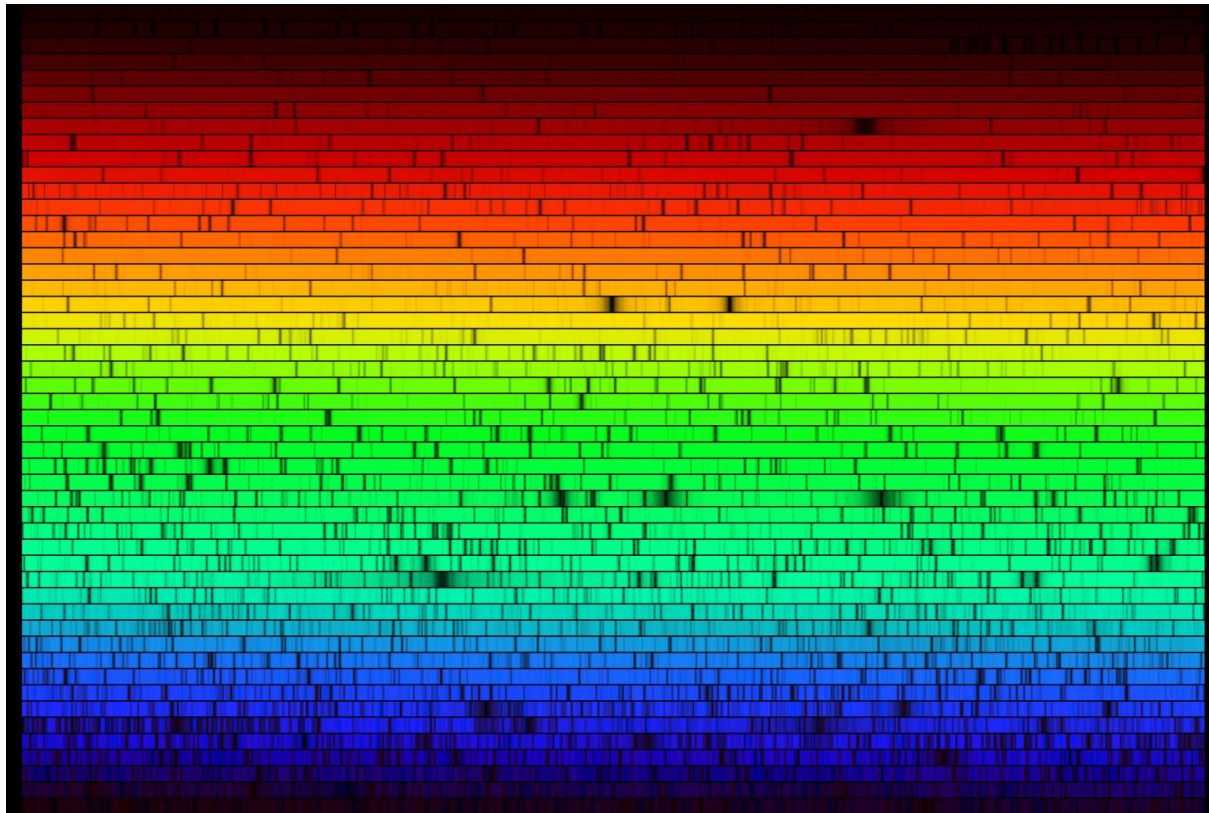
4. Astrometric binaries - one star can be seen, the other can't. The unseen companion makes the visible star "wobble" on the sky.

# Stellar masses and radii

- Masses known for about  $\sim 200$  stars, within a range of  $0.07 - 60 M_{\odot}$  (a few of  $120 M_{\odot}$ )
- Radii hard to measure because of large distances (the Sun at 1pc distance has an angular diameter of 9.3milliarcseconds)
- $\sim 600$  stars have radii measured directly (interferometry, eclipsing binaries, lunar occultation)
- Recall for a blackbody:  $L = 4\pi R^2 \sigma T^4$   
so knowing  $L$  and  $T$  we can calculate  $R$ .

# Stars - spectral types

- 1901: Led by Annie Jump Cannon, Harvard astronomers looked at the spectra of >200,000 stars.
- Found that the spectra could be put into relatively few classes (OBAFGKM), based on the relative strengths of the absorption lines of different elements



# Mnemonics

**Oh Be A Fine Girl Kiss Me**

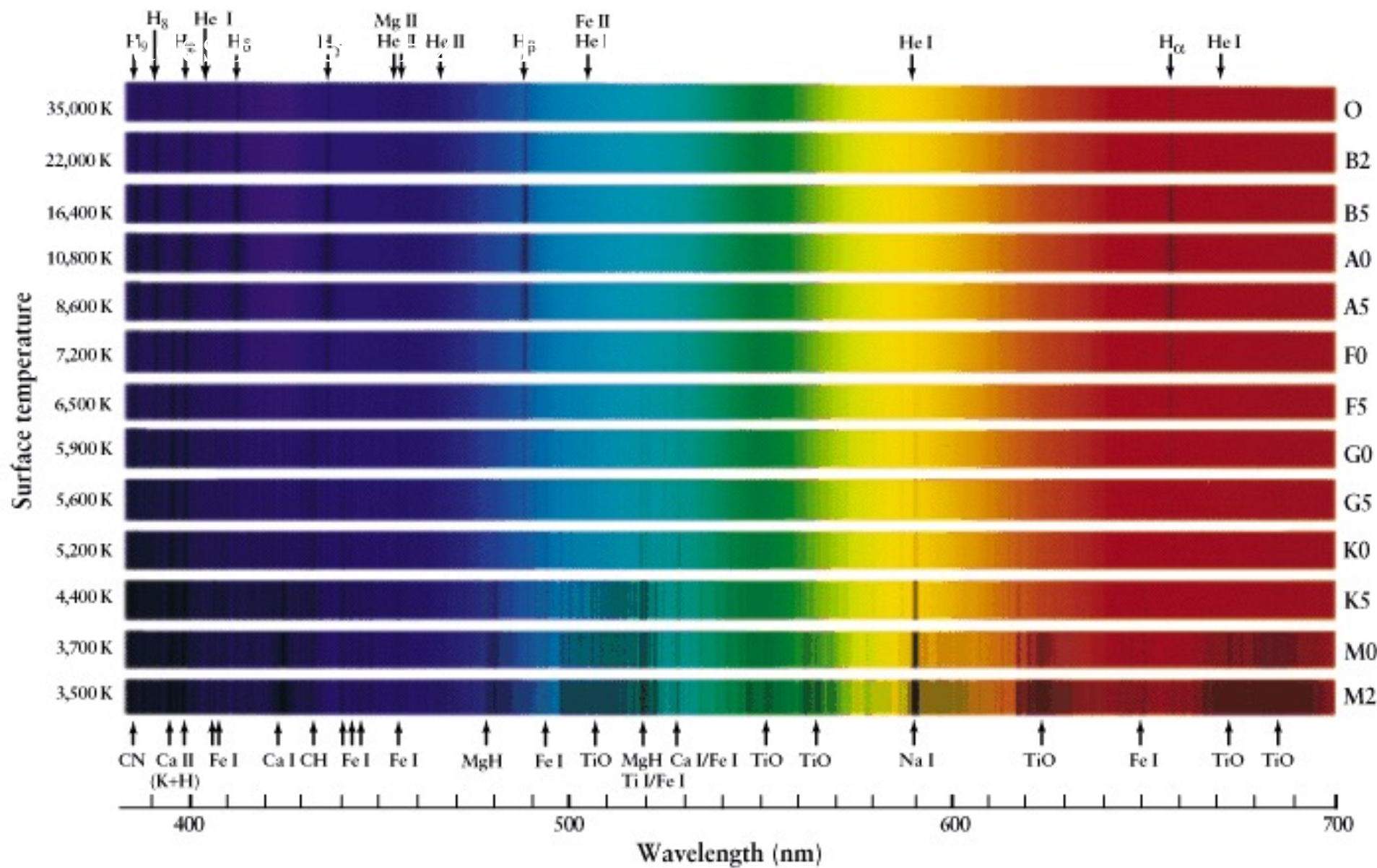
**Oh Bother, Another F's Gonna Kill Me**

**Oh Bother, Astronomers Frequently Give Killer Midterms**

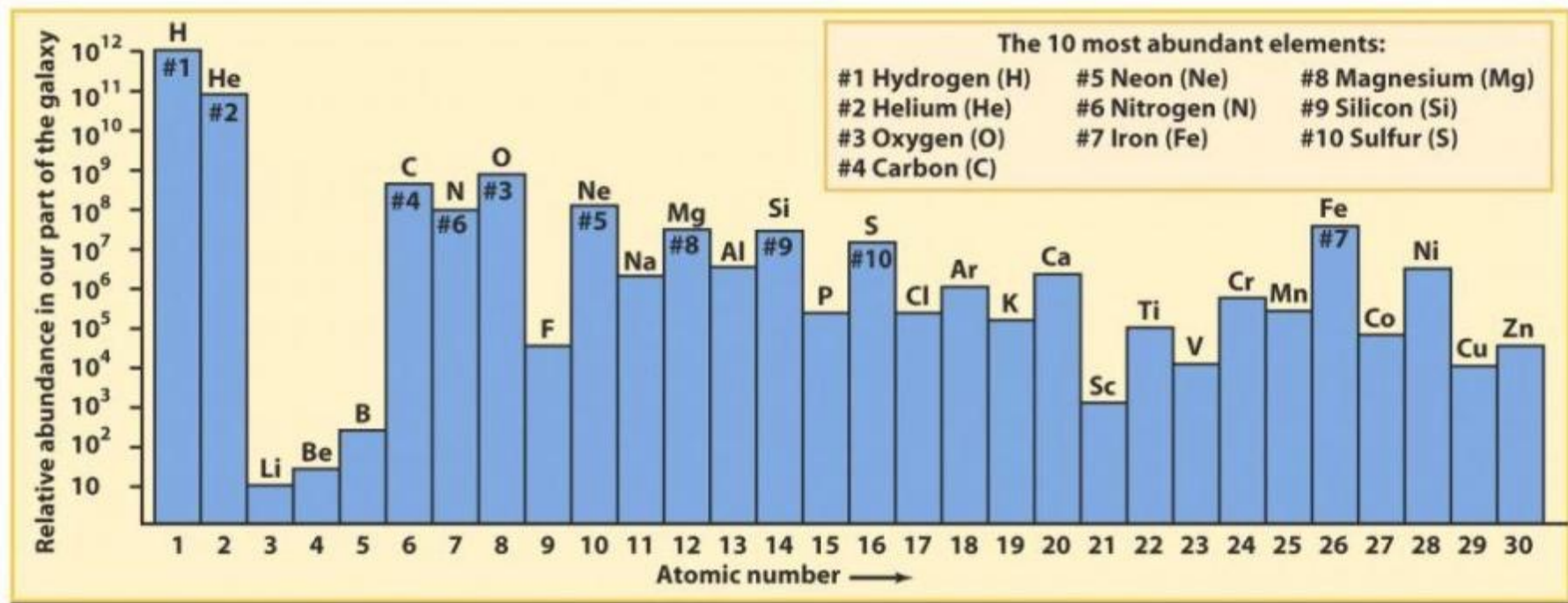
**One Bug Ate Five Green Killer Moths**

**Oven-Baked Ants, Fried Gently, Keeps Moist**

**Only Boring Astronomers Find Gratification Knowing Mnemonics**



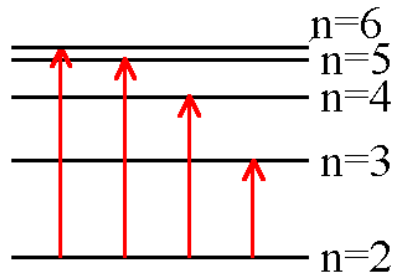
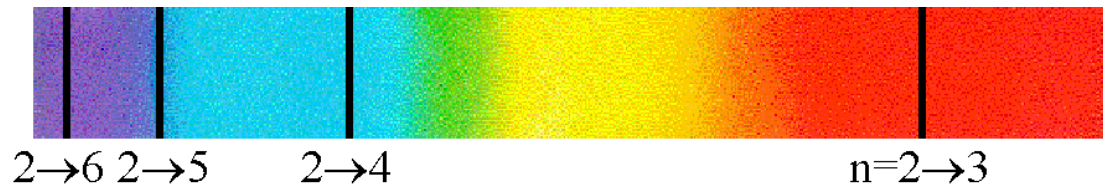
- Are differences in the strengths of the lines from a true difference in abundance of elements?
- NO! The basic cosmic abundance applies to essentially all stars. H and He dominates.
- Almost all stars are about 75% H, 25% He and <1% heavier elements by mass.
- Cosmic abundance: average abundance of elements in the Universe.





# Spectral sequence = temperature sequence

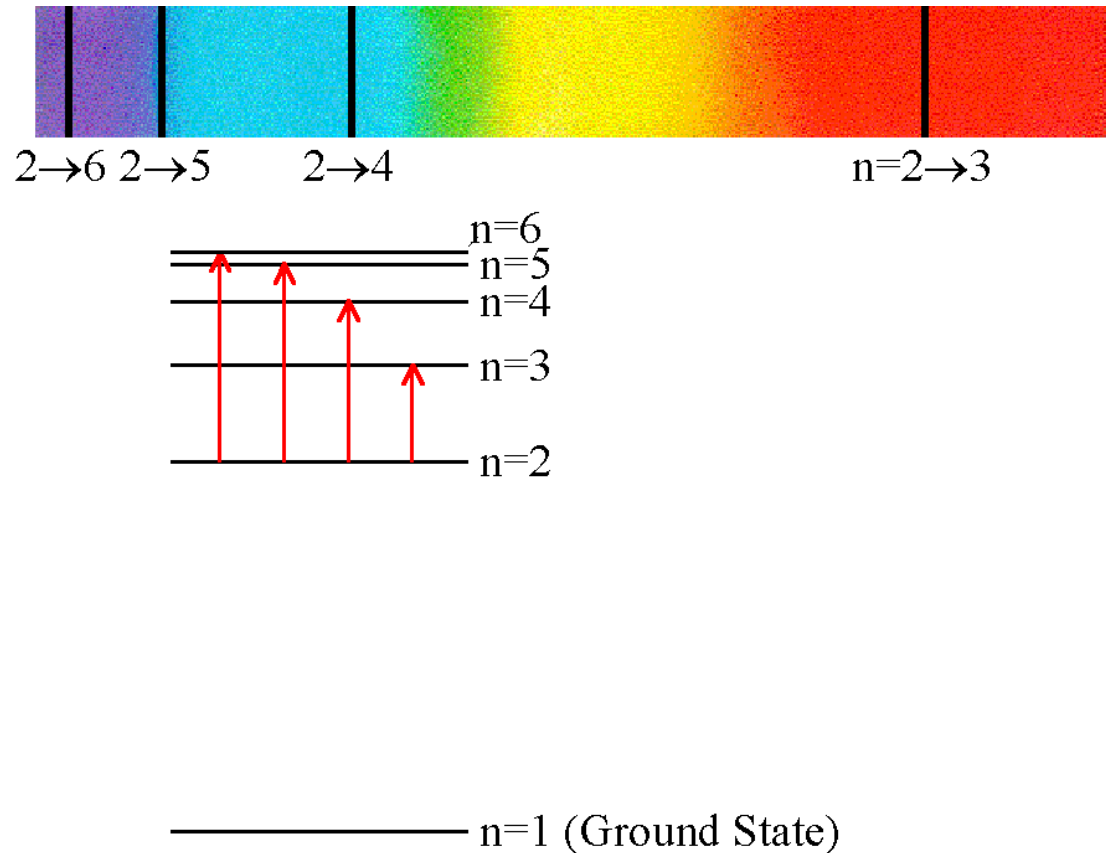
- Stars differ in spectral types due to different temperatures in their photospheres.



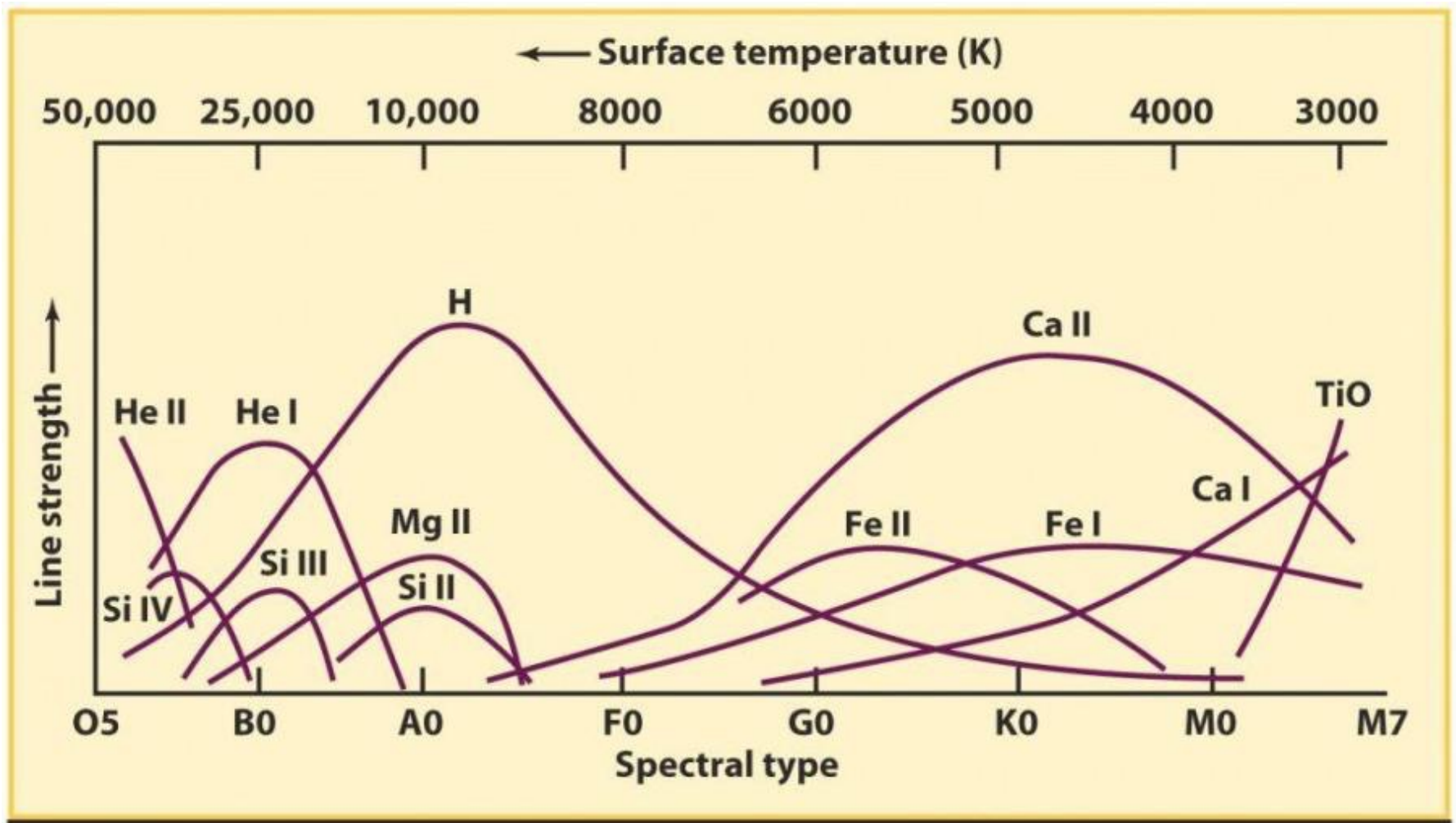
Example hydrogen: if  $T < 10^4$  K, most electrons are in the  $n=1$  orbital state  $\Rightarrow$  cannot absorb visible light (Balmer photons).

—————  $n=1$  (Ground State)

- If  $T \sim 10^4$  K, most electrons are in the  $n=2$  orbital state  $\Rightarrow$  can absorb visible light  $\Rightarrow$  Balmer absorption lines.
- If  $T \gg 10^4$  K, most electrons are in level 3 or higher, and cannot absorb visible light.



Balmer lines of hydrogen are most prominent about 10,000 K, peaking around A0. Other lines peak at different temperatures.



**table 19-2**    **The Spectral Sequence**

Spectral class	Color	Temperature (K)	Spectral lines	Examples
O	Blue-violet	30,000–50,000	Ionized atoms, especially helium	Naos ( $\zeta$ Puppis), Mintaka ( $\delta$ Orionis)
B	Blue-white	11,000–30,000	Neutral helium, some hydrogen	Spica ( $\alpha$ Virginis), Rigel ( $\beta$ Orionis)
A	White	7500–11,000	Strong hydrogen, some ionized metals	Sirius ( $\alpha$ Canis Majoris), Vega ( $\alpha$ Lyrae)
F	Yellow-white	5900–7500	Hydrogen and ionized metals such as calcium and iron	Canopus ( $\alpha$ Carinae), Procyon ( $\alpha$ Canis Minoris)
G	Yellow	5200–5900	Both neutral and ionized metals, especially ionized calcium	Sun, Capella ( $\alpha$ Aurigae)
K	Orange	3900–5200	Neutral metals	Arcturus ( $\alpha$ Boötis), Aldebaran ( $\alpha$ Tauri)
M	Red-orange	2500–3900	Strong titanium oxide and some neutral calcium	Antares ( $\alpha$ Scorpii), Betelgeuse ( $\alpha$ Orionis)
L	Red	1300–2500	Neutral potassium, rubidium, and cesium, and metal hydrides	Brown dwarf Teide 1
T	Red	below 1300	Strong neutral potassium and some water (H <sub>2</sub> O)	Brown dwarf Gliese 229B

Stellar classification provides a mean to estimate physical characteristics of stars.

# What we know so far about stars:

- Distances
- True 3-D motion
- Absolute magnitude/luminosities
- Color/Spectral type/Temperature
- Mass (for some)

=> synthesize this information into the H-R diagram.